

Public Personnel Review



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- 25 Years of Education for the Public Service: One University's Experience
- Political Activity Restrictions in Louisiana
- Arithmetic for Classifiers
- Cooperative Education in a Civil Service Setting
- Simplifying Personnel Records Maintenance
- Personnel Services for Local Government: The New Jersey Program
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Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

The Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly
of the United States and Canada

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Public Personnel Review

The quarterly journal of Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada provides a medium for the publication of factual material, and for materials that may represent divergent ideas, judgments, and opinions. The views expressed in articles and other contributions are those of the authors, and may not be construed as reflecting the views of the Assembly or the editors unless so stated.

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"THE FARM BOY CAN LEARN ABOUT THE CITY IN A FEW MONTHS. IT TAKES A LIFETIME FOR THE CITY BOY TO LEARN ABOUT THE FARM."

**George B. Estes, President,
Society for Advancement of Management**

The above quotation, popular fifteen years ago, states a homespun conclusion—the implications of which are evident in a strong trend throughout a great part of modern management. This trend is away from specialization and toward versatility in the development and performance expectancy of executive qualifications.

The farm boy, generally speaking, grows and matures in an environment wherein he must face and solve a broad miscellany of the basic components of life's routine problems: personal, social, economic. His cross-sectional experience, seasoned with healthy emotional maturity, tends to focus swiftly and effectively, and in an integrated way, upon the somewhat compartmentalized problems of city living. His city cousin, however, moving to the farm, has a much longer row to hoe. Any move from the specific to the general tends to be much more difficult than the reverse. One reason is lack of sufficient experience and knowledge to be integrated and used in the analysis and solution of new problems. Another is total inapplicability of the previous specific.

Many companies (generally those with fewer than eight thousand personnel) have reached the conclusion that versatility of executive ability is an economic necessity rather than luxury. Not all such companies can afford staff and service groups to handle specialized functions. They have discovered that they must either hire versatility or else train toward it. The alternative is loss of competitive advantage.

Nationwide realization of this fact is gradually putting new dimensions to the role of top executive. The day of the top executive

who is a specialist in one product, type of product, or one phase of management is past for a large segment of our manufacturing structure. A very good working knowledge of the basic governing functions such as production control, cost control, quality control, and the separate types and applications of these, has become part of the personal qualification he must bring to his post. He has been forced slowly but surely to move from the specific to the general; from the city to the farm.

Over and beyond a very personal knowledge of control functions, the top executive's "tool kit" is gradually enlarging to include a working knowledge of two or more types of manufacturing. World War II demonstrated the need of this qualification. Many plants in that period, undertaking the manufacture of additional products, found their company specialists totally inadequate for the problems inherent in these new products. In most cases the solution was to hire supervisory personnel whose experience and training were sufficiently varied to deal successfully with the manufacturing problems of the new product without relocating or destroying the manufacturing procedures of existing products. In many other cases, however, the solution was found right within the plant. It was found (with due amazement and joy) among nonspecialist personnel, men and women whose training and occupational experience were equal to the new needs. Versatility had once again come into its own.

Development of well-rounded executive ability is by no means a rose-strewn road. In large degree it involves at least as much willingness and determination to learn the broad essentials

(Continued on page 209)

25 Years of Education for the Public Service: One University's Experience

Henry Reining, Jr., and
Frank P. Sherwood

ON FEBRUARY 25 and 26, 1955, the School of Public Administration at the University of Southern California celebrated its silver anniversary—twenty-five years of providing professional education for the public service.

Admittedly, a quarter-century is a relatively short period of time, and it should give us some pause that the only university professional program in the United States pre-dating Southern California's is the Maxwell School at Syracuse University. Thus, the last twenty-five years in public administration has been the period when an attempt has been made to hammer out both a policy approach and an instrumentality to provide professional education for the public service.

Indeed the policy is still on the anvil, the instrumentality still being fashioned. But we have come a long way in the past twenty-five years. At least battle lines have been drawn, positions rationalized, and there is a growing awareness in the public service of the important role the universities must play. If proof be needed concerning this role, we need only look at the increasing reliance the Foreign Operations Administration (now International Cooperation Administration) has placed on the universities for aid in developing technical assistance programs in public administration for the various lesser developed countries of the world.

In the twenty-five year history of the School of Public Administration at the University of Southern California there can be found one approach to the problem—by no means the only one. By describing its background, its unique characteristics,

some of the results of its operation, and its future expectations, perhaps a better understanding of the general problem of education for the public service will be achieved.

Background

The School of Public Administration was really erected out of a community need for a resource to facilitate the accumulation of knowledge on governmental practice. Bear in mind that these were days, as former Dean Emery Olson has said, when there was no *Public Personnel Review*, no *Public Administration Review*, when it took two years to get the League of California Cities to approve an educational program. The need for this management center was most strongly felt by a doughty little group of city managers in southern California—eight in number.

It was they, along with Budget and Efficiency representatives of the City and County of Los Angeles, who made the trek to the office of University President Rufus von KleinSmid. The novelty of their idea may be indicated by the fact that they drew their inspiration from a one-week educational institute at Stanford University for secretaries of Chambers of Commerce. The meeting resulted in the decision to try a somewhat similar program for government people.

The first Institute, attempted in 1928, failed. Twelve months later, however, a highly successful Institute was staged and a program of evening classes for government officials was begun. While the evening program in the Civic Center area is still a major part of the School's activities, the Institute became a 1942 casualty of the war. Its place, in considerable part, has been taken by the conferences of the many professional societies and organizations which have reached maturity in the last fifteen years.

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• **Frank P. Sherwood** is Associate Professor, School of Public Administration.

It is difficult to say what event was responsible for shaping the character and the philosophy of the new educational program. Undoubtedly community participation at the very beginning was a big factor. It is an orientation the School has never lost, with benefits accruing to both the practicing administrators and the professors. Sometimes as lecturers, sometimes as students in the classrooms, and sometimes as members of advisory committees, practical men have blended with academic people to keep the focus of the program firmly directed toward the problems of the administrator.

Another shaping event was the appointment of Emery E. Olson as first Dean. Olson was an economist, an assistant dean of the School of Commerce, an intimate of the university President, a student of management, but no government man, no political scientist. He brought to the field, which was and is still dominated by political scientists and is generally considered a part of that discipline, a different set of experiences and insights. The strongest influence on Olson undoubtedly was the scientific management movement, as also seemed to be the case with Mosher at Syracuse. Hence USC has consistently pioneered the "management" approach in contrast to the "political" or "policy" approach.

The third event of great significance to the molding of the School was the arrival on campus, again in that fateful year 1929, of John M. Pfiffner. It is almost impossible to evaluate the impact of this quiet, modest scholar. Well known throughout the nation, he is almost legendary in Southern California. More than any other person he has built the professional curriculum of the School. His books form the foundation stones of several courses; his initial ideas and imagination have buttressed others. In addition, Pfiffner's deep-seated conviction that better management methods can raise political morality provided a political scientist's continuous and vigorous support for the School's "management" approach.

Finally, financing should be considered a fourth event which has had its impact on the School's development. It is little

short of a miracle that such a program, the nation's largest in point of full-time faculty and students enrolled, should have emerged at the privately-supported University of Southern California. Its endowment was and is almost nonexistent. Yet the program survived to become a leader in an educational field which, particularly in the West, has been completely dominated by public universities.

The fact that the program has had to be self-supporting over the quarter-century has undoubtedly had an impact on its flexibility and its quality. If a need for a particular course or curriculum was expressed in terms of community interest, so long as it accorded with university objectives no artificial roadblocks were thrown in its way. It was offered. In short, there has been a minimum of bureaucracy. Over the years the program has been supple, responsive to the needs of the community.

Unique Aspects of the School

As has already been noted, the theoretical foundation of the School is not particularly original. The idea of applying up-to-date management knowledge to government administration certainly goes back to the New York Bureau of Municipal Research, which also engaged in an education program and was the direct precursor of the Syracuse School. But within that broad framework, there are aspects of the USC program which are unique and have achieved various measures of acceptance.

No longer unusual is the idea of providing educational opportunities in public management to full-time government officials; and certainly developments in this field are only a small part of the burgeoning adult education movement. USC's pioneer in-service education program has been built on four major precepts, all of which are firsts in the field of education for the public service.

Convenience of Location.—The campus went to the students; and for the first several years all the classes were held after-hours in the public buildings of various government jurisdictions. In more recent years, when class schedules have covered 14 of the 24 hours of the day, separate

downtown quarters have been procured. Overflow evening classes are still held in public buildings.

Convenience of Time.—At first this simply meant offering classes in the later afternoon or evening. As the years went on, however, it was discovered that many still were unable to participate. This was particularly true of uniformed personnel in the police and fire departments. Police officers frequently started out the semester on a day shift, later in the semester were switched to a night shift. Firemen were customarily on twenty-four hours, off twenty-four, making it impossible for them to attend any class that fell on a given day each week.

By offering identical interchangeable classes both day and evening for policemen and on alternate days for firemen, the School of Public Administration made it possible for over 10,000 uniformed personnel in the City and County of Los Angeles to work toward a college degree on a regular basis for the first time.

Part-time, In-service Students Have Full University Standing.—The Civic Center offerings of the School of Public Administration were never from the first day considered as "just an extension program." They were an integral part of the University; the courses were approved by the University Curriculum Committee; the faculty by the proper university officials; and all work provided for credit toward degrees and certificates as at University Park.

Beyond the obvious point that degree objectives do provide incentives, there was a further significant reason why this approach to in-service education was taken. This was the recognition that the building of a professionalized public service would be infinitely more difficult unless everyone had the opportunity to obtain the professional training required. To put it another way, college degrees would not be symbols of antagonism toward the favored few if everyone had an opportunity to get one.

The idea has worked out in practice. Instead of encountering resistance from the man on the job who hasn't a degree, the young graduate is much more apt to find a friend and supporter. Chances are good

that the man on the job is working at night for his degree, too.

All Regular Faculty Must Teach in the Civic Center Program.—Despite the fact that a rather sizable full-time student body began to develop at the School's University Park campus after the first few years, it has always been the policy that each faculty member teach part of his load in the in-service program. This policy obviously ties in with the attitude that the Civic Center is an integral part of the University. In addition, it has provided a strength often lacking in various extension-type, after-hours programs where the bulk of the instruction has been given by practitioners sitting in as teachers one night a week. While a judicious sprinkling of highly capable practitioners in instructional roles is desirable, the School's leadership has always been careful to utilize a high percentage of academic personnel.

Not only is this policy followed to insure as high a quality of instruction as possible; it has also served as a counter-weight to the typically insular tendencies of a University faculty. The constant brush with persons facing the problems has served as a barrier against any retreat into a world of abstraction and make-believe.

The Educational Approach

A favorable time, a convenient location, and an active faculty are of course not enough. There has to be a substance, a theoretical framework, in which the program must jell. While the application of scientific management to public business provides a good starting point, it does not begin to answer two questions which are fundamental:

1. Can management be taught?
2. Even if it can be taught, is this the proper function of the University?

While it is not the purpose of this paper to engage in a lengthy philosophical discussion of these questions, the experience of twenty-five years does provide some perspective.

The Teachability of Administration.—One thing which is particularly striking—and would appear to bear on the teachability

of management—is the phenomenal increase in the literature of the field over the quarter-century. In the process, the discipline has been subjected to a healthful and rigorous rationalization. We seem to know a great deal more about what is pertinent to management behavior; and we are increasingly able to lay our hands on information which bears upon these significant factors. As we accumulate such knowledge and tie it to a well-knit frame of reference, the case for teaching management would appear to be strengthened.

It is instructive, in respect to this question, to review the Bulletin of the School for the past quarter-century. The early-thirties classification of course offerings tended to be institutional, legal, or functional. There were courses in county administration, municipal management, law of local government, administrative law, public health administration, tax assessment administration, and so forth. The unifying theme of management seemed to be obscured by the adjective describing the type of management.

Over the years the Bulletins appear to lay less stress on the differences between levels of government and between functions and more on the similarity of their problems. More courses in personnel. More courses in financing. New universalized courses in human relations in management, in administrative analysis, in politics and administration. In short, the Bulletins tell a story of theoretical development, of industrious research, and of scholarly writing which has left the antagonists of management education in a much less defensible position than heretofore.

Another facet of the teachability question concerns the status of the professional public administrator. Is there such a person? A good many University curricula seem to reflect a disbelief in his existence. Education in administration is often seen as an adjunct to some other type of professional training, such as engineering, medicine, social work, and so forth. The point, of course, is one which has been argued on innumerable occasions.

Suffice it to say here that one of the great changes of the last decade has been the

growth in avenues of entrance into professional positions for public administration graduates. In Southern California the rapid development of integrated management at the local level; the increased emphasis on administrative research, particularly as an aspect of budgeting; and the continuing need for developmental approaches in personnel administration have given recent School graduates opportunities their predecessors would not have dreamed of. It is the exception, definitely not the rule, when a PA trained person enters government at the clerical level. That could not be said fifteen years ago. In short, public administration graduates must have learned something that is useful. There is certainly a market for them.

The Role of the University.—The question whether management education is appropriate at the university level raises another familiar point of debate: the trade school concept. This is an easy indictment to hurl at a program; not an easy one to prove or disprove. Much depends on the rationalization of the university's responsibility and role in the community, an area in which there has been precious little thinking—and certainly no agreement.

One thing does seem clear, however. As we accumulate an increasing amount of knowledge about ourselves, the percentage of the whole any one individual can be expected to master will decline. In short, specialization must increase; and with it a corresponding growth in the types of programs offered by the university. Fifty years ago a Master's Degree in Machine Data Processing would have been unthinkable. Not long ago it was authorized at Harvard University. Certainly there can be no rigidity in these matters; curricular thinking must accommodate the changing education needs of the society.

Building upon this broad orientation, the School of Public Administration has rationalized its position in the following manner:

1. The administrative task is not routine, clerical, unchanging. It is the antithesis of these things; and the specific educational task of the School is to aid the prospective administrator

to cope more effectively with a continually changing environment.

2. There is a very real difference in the idea of education and the idea of training. The latter term is much more restrictive, teaching the man to work with the environment as presently constituted and the tools currently at hand. Education, on the other hand, is broader, involving the provision of a background which could result in the development of new tools or ways of doing things.

Specifically, this philosophy has meant that the School has never permitted the statement to be made that its courses would aid in passing a civil service examination. The focus continually has been on the job the student may have 10, 15, or 20 years from now, rather than his immediate assignment after graduation. And we do not limit ourselves to a single jurisdiction or organization, as would the typical training program. There is a ranging, a reaching out, for instructive experience wherever it may be found. This insistence on canvassing the field broadly represents perhaps the most important distinction between education and training. It is also an important factor in the development of interest on the part of the practitioner in educational work. It is really surprising how little the average budget examiner in a city government knows about similar problems in the state and national government and the theory behind his work.

3. Professional university education should not be reserved to a small elite in the society. The inclination of a program in public administration which emphasizes policy development is to concentrate on the tiny group who will reach the top of the hierarchy. Certainly this is a task that needs doing; but in addition there is the group with middle management potentiality who must be professionally educated. While the School of Public Administration has had a share of the cream, particularly those entering local government, it would perhaps be fair to say that the elite, policy-development idea has been subjugated to the larger, middle-management idea. This is perhaps not surprising in view of the School's strong scientific management underpinnings.

In summary, the role of the University in management training is not adequately viewed in abstract, vacuum-like terms. Given the set of premises of the School of Public Administration concerning the nature of administration, the nature of education, and the type of clientele toward which the University has a responsibility,

professional education in public administration can be supported quite effectively.

The Organization of the School

To a considerable extent, organizational arrangements depend on basic assumptions. The management approach, the teachability of management, and the identification of a responsibility by the University doubtless influenced the creation of a professional School of Public Administration separate from its traditional parent, the Department of Political Science. The pattern may be most easily likened to the Schools of Business Administration, which are similarly separate from the Department of Economics. This involves an entirely distinct set of course offerings; and it means in most cases an independent faculty.

While the pattern is well established in the business field, the University of Southern California is still one of the few universities to possess such a School of Public Administration. Even the acknowledged first School of Public Administration, Maxwell, also contains the Social Science Division of Syracuse University. Appointments are normally made to such fields as Sociology, Political Science, Economics, and so forth. Within this structure a professional curriculum in public administration is presented. Harvard's Littauer School of Public Administration is composed of persons who hold appointments elsewhere in the University. In contrast, all such appointments at the University of Southern California are to the faculty of Public Administration.

One thing certainly can be said about the organizational approach followed at USC. Independence has enabled public administration to prosper. All the usual advantages of such autonomy seem to have appeared: easier access to the University's leadership; more prominence in the contest for likely entrants in the public service; less conflict with other disciplines; more precisely defined objectives; and probably more adequate financial resources. Without all these advantages, it is really questionable whether a relatively new university out in the Far West, greatly

removed from the seats of government, could come to have occupied its significant place in the national and international movement toward better public management.

The Results

There is no easy, arithmetical way in which we can tabulate the effectiveness of the School of Public Administration in the last twenty-five years. In the absence of such a criterion, we may draw our own conclusions from these types of data:

1. Southern California local government has reached a peak of effectiveness almost unrivalled in the United States. The leadership of Californians in personnel, finance, administrative methods is quite apparent.
2. Graduates of the School of Public Administration are dotted throughout the management levels of governments in Southern California. They are not to be found in one jurisdiction or one type of work.
3. Individual graduates of the School are assuming positions of importance and responsibility throughout the world: the Director of Administration for the World Bank; the Administrative Assistant Secretary of the U.S. Treasury; the Director of Administration for the City of Minas Gerais (Brazil); the Dean of the Faculty of Political Science, University of Ankara (Turkey); a former City Manager of Fort Lauderdale (Florida) who is now carrying out an assignment for the State Department in El Salvador; the Director of the Management Division, Los Angeles County, a holder of the Rockefeller Award for Distinguished Public Service. And it should be borne in mind that, with rare exceptions, the graduates of the School are under 45 years of age.
4. The School of Public Administration has played a highly significant role in the public administration programs of technical assistance undertaken by both the U.S. Government and the United Nations. Its faculty members were leaders in establishing U.N. Institutes of Public Administration in Brazil (the first of its type) and in Turkey (the second). It was the first to provide group academic training in public administration under Point Four auspices;¹ and last June it undertook the responsibility of

establishing, with the University of Tehran, an Institute of Administrative Affairs in Iran. This program was staffed in three months, mainly by USC-trained people, and in five months instruction was under way.

This great activity at the international level by a local government-oriented school gives rise to some interesting speculation. Essentially the School of Public Administration has leapfrogged the U.S. national scene; and yet its relationships abroad are primarily with national governments. While it is obvious that the foreign governments of Turkey, Iran, and Brazil do not approach in size the U.S., one could argue that the types of functions performed, such as national security, foreign affairs, and so forth, are essentially similar. And these are factors with which local administrators are eminently unconcerned. Thus USC's active participation would seem to present a strong argument for the presence of management universals, regardless of function performed. There is a second hypothesis suggested by this development: perhaps the U.S. National Government is not a suitable level for the academic study of the public administrative process. Perhaps the best learning and teaching experience exists where the entire process or activity is within the perceptual embrace of an individual, a practical impossibility in Washington.

At any rate, a substantial contribution to the international public administration movement has been made by the Southern California School of Public Administration; and attention in the future should be directed toward discovering how and why this was possible.

5. One of the two best known textbooks in public administration is authored by a USC professor, John M. Pfiffner.² The Pfiffner product, supplemented by the work of other faculty members, has enabled the School of Public Administration to generate a considerable segment of the literature in public administration.

6. The School has made an outstanding contribution to the research movement in public administration, particularly in the area of organizational effectiveness. Recently a four-year basic research study, representing the combined efforts of public administration, psychology,

² Prof. Pfiffner's text, originally published in 1935, is now in its third edition. See Pfiffner and Presthus, *Public Administration* (New York: The Ronald Press, 1953). Pfiffner's other principal works are: *Supervision of Personnel* (Prentice-Hall, 1951); *A Manual of Administrative Analysis* (Brown, 1952); *Research Methods in Public Administration* (Ronald, 1941); *Municipal Administration* (Ronald, 1940); and *Organization: The Science of Hierarchy* (Mimeographed, 1955).

¹ William B. Storm and Frank P. Sherwood, "Technical Assistance in Public Administration; The Domestic Role," *Public Administration Review* (Winter 1954). (A lengthier report, by the same authors, has also been published in mimeographed form.)

and sociology, was completed. There is little question that the methodology developed, the findings reached, and the system of collaboration between the disciplines effected in this research will have a profound effect on public management process in the coming decade. Currently a pilot study, building on the previous studies, is being undertaken in the Old Age and Survivors' Bureau of the Social Security Administration, an agency second only to the Post Office in the number of civilian field personnel.

7. If imitation is truly a form of flattery, the University of Southern California can really take pride. Its program has instigated a great demand for similar type curricula. In California the publicly supported institutions are filling a large portion of this need with programs patterned closely on the USC model; at other points throughout the nation, such as Seattle; Washington, D. C.; Denver, the Dean has been called upon to lend advice and aid; and at the international level the USC pattern seems to have provided considerable inspiration.

The Future

What will the next twenty-five years be like? A survey conducted at the time of the anniversary celebration in February indicated that the tasks of government will become even more complex in the period ahead:

In the field of *public policy*, continued emphasis on national defense, close supervision of economic trends by government, greater responsibility required of administrators, with greater attention to standards and ethics.

In the field of *organization*, increased use of specialized units of organization at all government levels, greater decentralization in both national and international organizations.

In the field of *administrative practices*, greater use of scientific mechanical devices.

Summed up, the task of administration will probably be tougher, not easier.

At the University of Southern California there are at least two hopeful signs that students of the future will be better equipped to meet their responsibilities than their predecessors. One is the increasing appearance of foreign students who are studying public administration. These

people, who are on the whole extremely high calibre, have forced a rather substantial stock-taking of present concepts of public administration. We are finding that many of our approaches have rested on prejudices and on cultural bias, rather than on situational needs. In some cases we have found we haven't even had a good prejudice to support our point. This type of invigoration will undoubtedly produce a benefit that is still not calculable.

As the thread of administration in human activity has become more sharply defined, the applicability of a variety of disciplinary approaches has also become increasingly apparent. Public administration, we now know, is not alone political. It is social. It is economic. It is physical. It is individual. It is group. The combinations are interminable. Administrative action is a segment of the larger complex of human behavior; and all those concerned with this latter phenomenon have contributed to make to public administration. In short, the field is becoming "social science-based."

Specifically, this means a widening of educational backgrounds within the School of Public Administration. Although the Political Scientists still predominate, the present staff includes an Economist, a Social Anthropologist, and two whose graduate work is in the field of Education. The fields of Sociology and Psychology have also been represented on the faculty in very recent years. As Dean Olson did twenty-five years ago, these members are providing important new ideas in our research and an invigoration to our teaching program.

While the School appears to be in an extremely strong position to meet its educational objectives, the same unfortunately cannot be said for its financial position. Perhaps the biggest disappointment of the last twenty-five years has been the difficulty of securing some type of continuing financial support for the program. The drama of achieving better government is something that has not apparently pricked the public consciousness; and obtaining funds has been further complicated by a typical academic disdain for giving up precious re-

search time in the more mundane pursuit of money.

Meanwhile a revolution has occurred in higher education in California, in which three systems (the junior colleges, the state colleges, and the University with eight campuses) enable the citizen to satisfy his education needs with little or no outlay of personal funds. Large evening programs abound in the Los Angeles metropolitan area, many taught by School of Public Administration graduates, which make USC's standard tuition fee of \$20 per unit seem completely unreasonable. In addition, the availability of programs in public institutions has made even more difficult the securing of philanthropic funds; and only a few of the cities, counties, and other jurisdictions have as yet adopted policies to reimburse their employees for tuition for courses that could be taken free elsewhere.

There are differences, of course, in the programs. The University traditionally has reserved time for research by its faculty; it has exercised a leadership in curriculum development; it has relied much less on practitioners as instructors; and it has

probably been more independent, less conformist in approaching community problems. In brief, it has done many things over the twenty-five-year period that publicly-supported institutions in the Southern California area would not have been able to do.

The problem raised, it should be made clear here, does not involve mere survival. Even a drastic curtailment would leave a reasonably large University Park program. The real issue is whether the qualities which have enabled the School to distinguish itself in the past will be preserved—most notably, the part-time, Civic Center Division, which in a very real sense is the heart beat of the School of Public Administration.

There are many important, more general questions raised by the developing pattern of higher education in California that cannot be discussed in this article. More immediately, the School of Public Administration is in danger of being drastically slowed in its pace if not drained of its vitality. Is it worth saving? How can it be done?

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Political Activity Restrictions in Louisiana

Miller Lee Martin

I AM sure that most public personnel people know that the citizens of Louisiana have had some very interesting experiences with political activity in the history of the state service. To me, the present situation regarding political activity of civil service employees appears to present the "after" picture of the well-known before-after advertisements. In viewing the overall progress of merit systems I find it surprising that so many jurisdictions have little or no political activity restrictions for public employees.

I know of no better example than the State of Louisiana to show the necessity for proper legal restrictions on the political activity of public employees. Of course we recognize that a legal restriction *per se* is not the sole answer. There must also be a high degree of acceptance among the political leaders who exercise administrative leadership.

Political Activity Rampant

Prior to 1940 the spoils system in its most offensive state was the accepted practice among political leaders of questionable integrity in the State of Louisiana. During certain stages in the administration of governmental affairs in Louisiana prior to 1940 the five percent deduct system was a common practice. Employees, when the "ducks were flying,"¹ were required to contribute five percent of their pay checks to the administration in office, under penalty of losing their jobs if they refused. Political ward-healers ordered the separation of qualified employees to place their politically favored friends without regard to qualifications except political connections.

¹This phrase refers to the "deduct system" which was mandatory during political campaigns in this period of Louisiana history.

• Miller Lee Martin is Employee Relations Officer for the Louisiana State Civil Service. This article is adapted from a paper presented by Mr. Martin at the 1955 Southern Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly held at Chapel Hill, North Carolina.

Under such terms the efficiency of the state service was undermined. Employees had no security. Employees were expected to campaign extensively for the re-election of those in power. Vote solicitation, vote buying, and other objectionable practices were normal activities of many state employees.

No "Teeth" in First Civil Service Law

With the advent of the first civil service law in 1940, political activity restrictions were set up comparable with the provisions of the Hatch Act in the federal service. In 1942, however, the Legislature amended Section 42 of Act 172 so as to delete Par. (e). And Par. (e) was essential for any practical effect in applying restrictions. It read as follows:

(e) No employee in the classified service shall be a member of any national, state or local committee of a political party, or an officer or member of a committee of any factional, political club or organization, or a candidate for nomination or election to any public office, or shall make any political speech or public political statement as a part of any political campaign, or shall take part in the management or affairs of any political party or in any political campaign, except to exercise his right as a citizen privately to express his opinion and to cast his vote.

Civil service went into effect as to employees January 1, 1943, and since Par. (e) had been deleted there was nothing left in the law to prohibit employees from taking an active part in political campaigns.

The Department of Civil Service issued a ruling that employees could not campaign during working hours. There were several investigations made by the Department of reported political activity but in all such investigations the only evidence obtained was of activity after working hours or while the accused employee was on leave of absence. No case involving political activity during working hours was brought before the Commission. It is doubtful if the Commission could have

done anything about such a case, as the Department's ruling that political activity was prohibited during working hours was not founded on anything in Section 42. Department heads could of course have taken disciplinary action in such a case, but none wanted to do so.

During this period, the State Civil Service Commission and Civil Service League received hundreds of confidential complaints asking that they do something to relieve them from the inevitable coercions by supervisors and appointing authorities, but without a provision in the law prohibiting political activity, the Civil Service Commission could be of little assistance.

Most department heads encouraged their employees to take part in campaigns and would give them time off to do so. (You will note that Section 42 has no counterpart to Par. (N)(6) of the present law.)¹ Appointing authorities could therefore, under the old law, force employees to take part in politics without fear of prosecution. Needless to say, some took advantage of this weakness in the law.

In the hotly contested election for Governor and members of the Legislature in 1947-1948, thousands of civil service employees campaigned openly, presumably after working hours or while on leave of absence, against the candidate who won. They hid behind the shield of civil service. The result? The Civil Service Law was repealed.

After the law was repealed, only agencies of merit systems were covered by restrictions under the Hatch Act. Interested civic groups continued the battle to restore an effective civil service covering the majority of state employees with appropriate political activity restrictions. This was ac-

complished by a constitutional amendment in 1952.

Strong Political Activity Provisions in Current Law

Under the present Civil Service Law, provisions to prohibit political activity follow very closely the restrictions of the Hatch Act. Political activity restrictions apply during and after office hours. One primary difference with the Hatch Act provisions is that an employee may be a Commissioner or Official Watcher at the polls. There is also more discretion on the part of our Civil Service Commission in applying penalties. In addition, the Hatch Act permits voluntary political contribution while such activity is expressly prohibited by the Louisiana State Civil Service Law.

This is, of course, a new law and we have had only local elections which may have involved political action on the part of classified employees. So far, we have made two investigations in connection with alleged political activity. In one instance, an employee was separated by the agency for alleged political activity. On the basis of a hearing before the Civil Service Commission, the employee was reinstated because of lack of adequate evidence to substantiate the charges by the agency.

A more extensive complaint was received in connection with the election of certain Parish officials in August of 1954. This complaint was investigated and the Civil Service Commission held a hearing to decide the cases of sixteen employees. You may be interested in the specific findings of the Commission in these instances:

On December 15, 1954 after an investigation of political activity in connection with an election in Louisiana the following was found to be true:

1. _____ solicited a vote for a candidate and drove the candidate while he was soliciting votes. (Received 15 days suspension without pay.)

2. _____ publicly announced his preference for a certain candidate and attempted to influence votes for the candidate of his choice and threatened to injure the business of a merchant because of the latter's activity on behalf of an opposing candidate. (Suspended without pay for 60 days.)

¹"No appointing authority, or agent or deputy thereof, or supervisor of any employee, shall directly or indirectly demote, suspend, discharge, or otherwise discipline or threaten to demote, suspend, discharge, or otherwise discipline any person in the Classified Civil Service of the State or any city for the purpose of influencing his vote, support, or other political activity in any election or primary election; and no appointing authority, or agent or deputy thereof, shall use his official authority or influence, by threats, promises, or other means, directly or indirectly, to punish or coerce the political action of any employee in the Classified Service of the State or a city."

3. _____ attempted to coerce a voter, distributed cards and solicited votes. (Suspended without pay for 45 days.)

4. _____ campaigned over a loud speaker in behalf of a candidate. (Suspended without pay 10 days.)

5. _____ solicited votes at voting poll and distributed money to induce support for candidate. (Dismissed.)

6. _____ active in behalf of certain candidates, made public statements, solicited support for them, promised rewards, and contributed his car and money to bring voters to the polls. (Dismissed.)

7. _____ offered to pay for votes, passed out cards and procured members of his family to do likewise. (Dismissed.)

8. _____ distributed cards and solicited votes. (Suspended without pay for 15 days.)

This was the first case which this Commission was required to decide upon the penalties under the Law, and they stated that this circumstance may have induced its members to undue leniency in some cases. They also served notice that no such leniency would be expected in the future.

Eight additional cases were considered and the employees cleared of the charges.

In announcing its decisions, the Commission stated:

The evident purpose of the people in so restricting the political activities of employees in the Classified Service is to promote efficiency and integrity and maintain proper discipline in the public service. . . . The effort of the people of Louisiana thus to protect their democratic society against the evils of [political activity] can only be successful if adequate penalties are imposed.

They also set forth the exception to the rules, that is, an employee "may exercise his right as a citizen to express his opinion privately, . . ." and then stated that the word "privately" means "in a private, secret or unofficial way." Therefore an employee who expresses his opinion openly to one or many people, knowing or hoping that the expressing of his opinion may aid or injure a candidate is violating the law.

In Louisiana, classified employees of the state may exercise their right to vote for whomever they choose and to express their opinion on political candidates in private.

They may also serve as Commissioners or Watchers during elections. If they go beyond these activities at this time, they may be in violation of the law.

In Summary

Some of you with well-established merit systems may feel that such restrictions should be relaxed to permit more freedom and participation of qualified citizens in partisan and nonpartisan activities. In our jurisdiction, we believe that in view of the political history and political climate in which we operate a merit system must first be firmly entrenched before these prohibitions can be relaxed.

I wish to close with a quotation from Mr. Charles Dunbar, "the Father of Civil Service in Louisiana."

It is to be expected, and it is understandable, that practical and professional political leaders, desiring to build and maintain active and well disciplined political organizations and machines, should oppose restrictions limiting political activity on the part of civil service employees. There has been and always will be opposition from this group of our citizens. We understand, however, that some of the friends of civil service, unfamiliar with its practical operation, argue that employees protected by civil service should have the right of unlimited freedom of activity in political campaigns, and should be able to serve as ward leaders, precinct leaders, vote canvassers, political speakers, etc. It is suggested by those advocating this point of view that a prohibition in the law against employees engaging in the political activities we have described (even though it permitted them to vote as they please and freely express their political opinions as they please), would deprive public employees of some "civil liberties." As a matter of fact, in the practical operation of a civil service system the opposite is true.

Where political activity is not prohibited the various factors and implied coercions undermine the morale and efficiency of the many thousands of civil service employees. Moreover, political activity discredits the civil service system and civil service employees in the eyes of the public, who feel that civil service is a mockery when they see employees, protected by civil service, serving as leaders and active workers in the political machine of any administration temporarily in power.

Arithmetic for Classifiers

Melvin J. Lawson

THE MAINTENANCE of a classification plan is a major task, even for a relatively small agency. In many, the classification plan is not maintained too well and after several years, it is necessary to have an outside firm make a complete classification survey. However, after the survey staff has departed, the classification plan is once again allowed to deteriorate.

The City of Los Angeles had surveys by Public Administration Service in 1939-1940 and the J. L. Jacobs & Company beginning in 1945; so it had a rather large capital investment to protect.

First Step—An Inventory

In analyzing the problem of maintaining its classification plan, the Los Angeles City Civil Service Department decided that it should first take inventory. It found on March 15, 1950, that approximately three-eighths of the classes were one-position classes. Practically speaking, this meant that these classes did not require or need the same classification effort as the others.

It was realized, however, that a significant change in the duties and responsibilities of a one-position class could completely change the concept of that class, whereas a comparable change in a single position in a multi-position class would have practically no effect. Fortunately, because many of these one-position classes are at the highest levels with little turnover, changes in class content occur infrequently.

The Civil Service Department did not ignore the one-position classes, but decided to expend most of its effort on the other classes. At the present time, the one-position classes are reviewed as frequently as other classes to determine if any significant change has occurred or if any consolidation of classes is possible. As a result of this review, the number of one-position classes has been reduced each year.

• Melvin J. Lawson is Chief Personnel Technician in charge of the Classification Division, Los Angeles City Civil Service Commission.

In continuing its inventory, the Civil Service Department found that positions in some of the authorized classes were filled infrequently. These classes were primarily construction classes which the operating departments needed, but which were used only during emergencies or special construction projects. Once these classes were established and class specifications prepared, the amount of classification effort required was relatively small. The number of such inactive classes has been reduced over the years so that as of January 1, 1955, only 34 classes had no incumbents. The cost of maintaining inactive classes is believed to have been reduced to as low a figure as possible.

The remaining classes were the ones on which the Department decided in 1950 to expend its maximum classification effort. It was further decided that a complete class audit once every four years should be adequate in most cases. The four-year figure was selected because the life of a city eligible list is two years. This meant in most cases that at the time an examination is prepared, the classification and job information is no older than two years. However, a further precaution is taken with regard to examinations announced between class audits. This will be explained below.

Second Step—An Auditing Program

Using the figures as of January 1, 1955, the following tabulation will show the approach used in setting up the class audit program five years ago:

943	Authorized classes
346	One-position classes (36.7%)
597	
34	Vacant classes (3.6%)
563	Classes to audit once every 4 years
4/563	
141	Classes to audit each year

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12/141

12 Classes to audit each month

6/12

2 Classes each technician must audit each month

As can be seen from the above figures, each technician can keep the program on schedule by auditing an average of two classes each month. In the 563 classes with two or more incumbents, there were 29,447 employees, or an average of 52 employees per class. This would mean an average of 104 field audits per technician per month IF every employee were interviewed. However, that would be an obviously expensive and needless waste of time. Instead, the technician accounts for each employee and only interviews at least one employee in each type of work.

For example, if there are 50 Linemen assigned to the same type of crew, the classification technician discusses the work of these men with a supervisory employee to determine that they are doing very similar, if not identical work, but interviews only three or four employees on the job. He does, however, check job descriptions, organization charts, and similar material in the Civil Service Department's files to satisfy himself further that no classification problems exist and that he is obtaining accurate and complete job information.

Instead of auditing classes in different series in a hit-or-miss fashion, it was decided to audit series of classes at the same time. For example, instead of auditing the Sanitation Inspector class this year, Senior Sanitation Inspector next year, and Principal Sanitation Inspector the following year, the series is audited at the same time. This reduces the time necessary to audit classes and recognizes the fact that classes in a series are so inter-related that one cannot audit a class without knowing its relationship to the class above and the class below it.

The Department attempts to audit closely related series, such as Plumbing and Pipefitting, at the same time so that allocating factors may be determined more clearly. Where reasonable, series at remote

geographical locations are normally assigned to the same classification technician for purposes of efficiency and economy.

The classes to be audited each year are assigned at the beginning of the year. Each classification technician is then free to plan this phase of his work as he sees fit, subject to revision only as emergencies may arise. In making assignments, classes which cross department lines are assigned to one technician, even though this apparently violates the Department's policy of having one technician do all the classification work for a department. In such instances, the arrangements for audits are made through the technician who is assigned the department in which audits are to be made. The assignment of a class audit to one technician further assures that the same allocation standards are being applied uniformly in all departments and also tends to develop occupational specialists, in addition to departmental specialists. For example, one classification technician who does the classification work for four large departments is also the construction equipment specialist to whom other classification technicians can refer problem cases.

In making his field audits, the classification technician obtains copies of forms used and sends them to the Examining Division for its use. He also notes the existence of procedural and similar manuals so that he may obtain them at the time of an examination.

Following each class audit, the classification technician prepares a fairly detailed narrative report which is made available to the Examining Division, which normally does not make job audits. In addition to the narrative staff report, the classification technician reviews and revises, as necessary, the class specifications. These revised class specifications are sent to the operating departments using the class in question for their review and criticism before being sent to the Civil Service Commission for approval as the official class specification. Following approval of the class specification, copies are sent to these same departments so that at all times they have current class specifications available.

Third Step—Continuous Check Up

During the normal four-year interval between class audits, any changes in class content or suggested changes in class specifications are accumulated in a notes folder. If the change is major, the class specification is revised at that time. Otherwise, the change is not made until the time of the regular class audit.

In addition to the class audits, it was realized that further methods of increasing efficiency were necessary if the maintenance task were to be accomplished successfully. As indicated above, it was decided to make each technician responsible for the classification work in certain departments. For example, one classification technician was assigned the Animal Regulation, Library, Municipal Art, Public Defender, and Recreation and Parks Departments. It was that technician's responsibility to process the department's personnel requests, recommend the allocation of their positions, audit their positions, write class specifications for classes found solely in these departments, and discuss problems with the employees and management of these departments. He is, in fact, the liaison man between these departments and the Civil Service Department.

In order that each classification technician may be kept informed of activity in his departments, he reviews and approves each Request for Certification and each Request for Transfer involving his departments. This, together with his review of personnel changes and changes in organization, helps to keep him "up-to-date" and to prevent classification problems from arising.

Of course, job and other classification information is obtained through the usual channels such as "out-of-class" protests, employee inquiries, position description questionnaires, departmental columns in employee magazines, budgets, management requests for new positions, and organization charts. Information is also obtained from applications for examinations. If the experience listed by an employee does not appear to be consistent with his class title, his application is brought to the attention of the classification technician

who is assigned the department in which the applicant is employed.

In its attempts to obtain current job information and prevent classification problems from arising, position description questionnaires are requested from many new employees four months after their appointment. At that time, since they are still serving their six months' probationary period, any problem indicated can usually be solved before the employee has obtained full civil service rights. The selection of employees to complete a position description questionnaire is made by each technician on the basis of the level of the position in the organization, the recency of the information in our files, turnover in the position, and similar factors.

An innovation has been the preparation, by the Classification Division, of examination bulletins. Bulletins are prepared for approximately 30 classes each month and are based on the class specifications which contain the examination weights. After the tentative bulletin has been prepared, it is sent to the departments using that class of personnel for their review and criticism. This helps to keep classification information current at all times and has reduced the number of departmental requests for changes in examination bulletins already approved and issued by the Civil Service Commission.

In its specification revision program, the Department has prepared a few experimental specifications in which one specification describes more than one class. An example is the single specification which describes the classes of Painter, Painter Working Foremen, and Painter Foremen. This has reduced the duplication which would have been found in three separate specifications. In addition to standardizing format, the Department is also working on standardization of content. For example, at the present time the Department is reviewing specifications for the major trades to determine if it is possible to prepare a single, standard specification which would be applicable to all journeyman classes, with the exception of differences in examples of duties.

In Summary

The Department's goal has been to maintain its classification plan as accurately and economically as possible. The city's policy of broad classes has made for greater administrative flexibility for operating departments, has decreased the number of examinations necessary, and has reduced the number of problems which would otherwise have arisen. Wherever possible, new positions have been allocated

to existing classes. In fact, during the last fiscal year, although 1,230 classified employees were added to the city's pay roll to make a total of over 30,000 employees, the number of classes remained the same.

We in the Los Angeles Civil Service Department believe that we have taken seriously our obligation to protect the city's investment in its classification plan by getting the facts on which better examinations can be prepared to obtain better employees.

"The Farm Boy Can Learn About the City in a Few Months. It Takes a Lifetime for the City Boy to Learn About the Farm."

(Continued from page 194)

and solution of a problem as readiness to delegate this task to specialists. The executive is a much better executive, competitively speaking, when he does learn these things and integrates them into his wider field. Such an executive can (and sometimes must) serve as a corrective or guidance factor for the specialist whose concentrated training may be a limitation in the development of new products or the handling of new problems.

Companies faced with the economic need of executives whose broad knowledge is sufficient to coordinate and at times correct the work of specialists have the choice either of hiring such men or else training incumbent executives to this point of proficiency. Each course of action has its own frustrations. There are just not enough executives of such qualifications to meet the demand. Formalized training of incumbents is equally a problem. Not all companies can spare their busy executives long enough away from the job to acquire the desired versatility, the desired rounding-out in specialized areas. What, then, can be done where the need exists?

The best answer lies in our own SAM Chapter [Society for Advancement of Management] activities. The Chapter meetings themselves afford the busy executive an excellent opportunity and, on a person-to-person basis, to learn first-hand the skills and mechanics of every phase of technical and nontechnical management. The planned activities of our Chapters are one of the strongest forces in our country for executive development, better management

and a happy economy. Such activities are planned to fit the specific needs of individual members and the needs of business generally in the local area. Many Chapters, for example, arrange plant visitations so that executives from one plant have opportunity to see and learn about techniques, problems and procedures in other companies.

Outside the local Chapter, the SAM national conferences act as a clearing house where executives, staff specialists and others with any degree of managerial responsibility may, in a few days, see and hear the latest developments in numerous phases of management.

Our Society is a growing, dynamic organization. Its keynote is progress. In accord with this policy it is studying steps to undertake an additional service calculated to heighten our contribution to executive growth and expansion in the science and art of management. This service is a seminar program. The need and acceptability of such a program has already been demonstrated. The harvest, however, is still very white.

A tremendous service lies ahead for each Chapter and the Society as a whole. The future holds strong challenge and unlimited potential for each Chapter locally and for the Society nationally. We can and will meet this future with the same resoluteness and solid success of the past.—(Reprinted with permission from the November, 1954, issue of *Advanced Management*, the monthly journal of the Society for Advancement of Management.)

Cooperative Education in a Civil Service Setting

William G. Torpey

COOPERATIVE education, a plan for rotating periods of academic work and practical experience, has been sponsored by some American educational institutions and industries for more than two decades. When used at the collegiate level, the plan has generally been related to the training of engineers. Comparatively little use of this type of training, however, has been made by governments. Recently one federal agency, the Naval Research Laboratory, gave careful consideration to the cooperative education concept and subsequently established a plan for prospective engineers and scientists. The Naval Research Laboratory cooperative education plan is unique, too, in that student participation is through the federal civil service system.¹ The purpose of this article is to review highlights in the planning and installing of the cooperative education plan at the Naval Research Laboratory with the thought that the experience of the Laboratory may be helpful to other government agencies.

Responsibilities of University and Employer

The academic cornerstone of the plan is a cooperative institution. A cooperative institution at the collegiate level is usually one which (1) has a curriculum leading to a bachelor's degree in engineering or the physical sciences; (2) authorizes or requires students to alternate periods of attendance at the institution with periods of outside employment as part of the academic program; (3) considers employment a regular part of the formal educational process; (4) requires employment to be related to the field of study in which the student is en-

gaged; and (5) specifies minimum hours of employment and a minimum standard of performance as part of the requirement for a degree.

The purpose of such a cooperative education program is to establish the framework under which students in accredited institutions of higher learning alternate periods of classroom instruction with periods of employment related to the student's field of study.

From the institution's viewpoint, the plan makes it possible to provide a richer educational experience for the student. From the employer viewpoint, the value of a cooperative education plan is twofold: the employer obtains qualified individuals to perform specific work assignments and the employer has the opportunity to acquaint such individuals with the career opportunities for employment in the organization. From the student's point of view, participation in a cooperative education plan gives him practical work experience which is regarded as part of his regular formal education. During the period of the practical work experience the student receives remuneration for his services.

The employer has specified responsibilities under a cooperative education program. The employer (1) outlines the job requirements in the institution and, through the institution, to the student; (2) concurs in the selection of a student recommended by the institution for a position or chooses one of several students recommended; (3) assigns the student to a particular job when the student reports for duty; and (4) prepares a report on the student's job performance at the completion of the period of assignment and forwards same to the institution.

The institution likewise has certain responsibilities. The institution (1) consults with the agency about the vacancy to be filled; (2) confers with students concerning

¹ For amplification, see William G. Torpey, *Public Personnel Management* (New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1953), Chap. 4.

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the specific job opportunities available; (3) selects or recommends to an employer a qualified student for the vacancy; (4) reviews with the student, upon his return from his assignment, the work experience; and (5) offers counseling to the student.

The student's basic responsibility is to perform the duties assigned and to study his assignments as efficiently as possible.

Shortage of Scientists and Engineers

Especially since 1945, the federal government has experienced a continuing shortage of qualified personnel in scientific and engineering fields. The shortage became particularly acute after the outbreak of the Korean conflict in 1950. As a matter of fact, the need of federal agencies for scientific and engineering personnel is still very critical. Recent manpower studies point up the fact that the current shortage in scientific and technical personnel will be long range in effect. A few surveys project 1968 as the earliest time when the supply of scientific and technical manpower may even be expected to approximate the demand in the United States.

Work of Naval Research Laboratory

The Naval Research Laboratory, located in Washington, D. C., was established in 1923. Its mission is the conduct of scientific research and development in the physical sciences and related fields directed toward new and improved materials, equipment, techniques, and systems for the Navy. In fulfillment of this mission, the Laboratory (1) initiates and conducts scientific research and development of a basic and long-range nature in scientific areas of special interest to the Navy; (2) performs scientific research and development for the Navy and, where specially qualified, for the Defense Department and, in defense related efforts, for other government agencies; (3) furnishes scientific consultative services for the Navy and, where specially qualified, for the Defense Department and, in defense related efforts, for other government agencies; (4) provides limited engineering test and evaluation services to the Navy. The Laboratory has approximately 3400 civil service employees of whom ap-

proximately 1400 are professional personnel.

Laboratory Looks for Ways to Obtain Needed Personnel

Faced with the growing difficulty of obtaining a sufficient number of qualified scientific and engineering personnel after the outbreak of the Korean conflict, the Personnel Office of the Laboratory decided to explore the possibilities of establishing a cooperative training program in 1951. Analyses of cooperative education programs already in effect in industry were made, not only from the view of obtaining immediate skills for certain vacancies but also from the view of increasing the chances of meeting future personnel requirements of the Laboratory on a career basis.

In 1951, the Laboratory Personnel Officer sought to obtain academic reaction to his proposal for the creation of a cooperative education program in the engineering and physical science fields within the federal civil service framework. He discussed the feasibility of setting up such a program with representatives of the U.S. Office of Education, with several college administrators, and with representatives of the Board of Control for Southern Regional Education (now the Southern Regional Education Board). The Board of Control was brought into the discussion because it was set up to assist southern colleges and universities in the development of cooperative relations with government and industrial agencies. In addition, the Laboratory had already established formal contacts with some of the institutions served by the Board.

Following preliminary meetings with the Secretariat of the Board of Control, a two-day meeting was held in September, 1951, at the Laboratory to explore ways by which member institutions of the Board of Control and the Naval Research Laboratory might work more closely and effectively together. The meeting was attended by the Laboratory Director, key Laboratory scientists and personnel officials, and a group of educators selected by the Board of Control.

During the two-day meeting, physical and personnel facilities of the Laboratory were carefully examined. The group of educators concluded that a cooperative education plan might be a valuable additional means of relating the interests and needs of the Laboratory with those of universities. The committee also suggested that the Laboratory should proceed to work out the details of a cooperative education plan in conjunction with education officials familiar with the details of such a plan on their own campuses.

Cooperative Program Established

After the meeting, the Personnel Officer of the Laboratory developed a written cooperative education plan which was constructed to meet the particular personnel needs of the Laboratory. In April, 1952, he presented the plan to representatives of eight southern institutions convened at a special meeting held at Atlanta, Georgia. After informal discussions with the U.S. Civil Service Commission, the plan was formally proposed by the Laboratory on June 5, 1952, to the Board of U.S. Civil Service Examiners for Scientific and Technical Personnel of the Potomac River Naval Command. This examining body, supervised by the Civil Service Commission, was created to service fourteen Naval activities in the Washington area.

The program presented to the Board of Examiners by the Laboratory contained the following salient features:

1. The Laboratory would create a maximum of 20 full-time positions for the cooperative education plan.
2. Insofar as practicable, students from participating colleges would be employed in pairs so that the Laboratory positions created for the program could be as nearly as possible continuously occupied.
3. All students would be selected and retained in conformity with Civil Service Commission rules and regulations.
4. Students would pay any travel expenses incurred in reporting to and from their colleges and the Laboratory.
5. Upon reporting to the Laboratory, students would be assigned to a 40-hour work week and receive salaries established by law for the grade held.²

² *Ibid*, Chap. 3.

6. Students would be placed in a leave-without-pay status for each period of absence from the Laboratory.

7. A senior Laboratory scientist would be appointed to be advisor to each student.

8. There would be no obligation upon the Laboratory to offer a student a full-time position upon the student's completion of the program nor would there be an obligation upon the student to accept full-time employment with the Laboratory upon completion of his program. However, upon graduation, the Laboratory would seek to place each student whose services had been satisfactory in a regular full-time position at the Laboratory in accordance with civil service rules.

The Laboratory requested that the announcement seek eligibles in the following four fields: physics, chemistry, metallurgy, and engineering (electrical, electronics and mechanical). The Laboratory proposed that successful applicants would be appointed to GS-2 positions and asked the Board of Examiners that the examination be an open continuous and assembled type, with a cut-off date to be established at least every six months, planned so that the time of the examination and the availability of the register would be consistent with academic schedules. The nature of the proposed training was such that students would be required intermittently throughout the year; consequently the Laboratory pointed out that candidates available for summer work only, could not be considered.

The Laboratory further suggested that the Board announcement itself convey the above points of the cooperative education plan, identified as such, so that applicants would readily understand the nature of this program and its differences from the regular summer trainee program administered by the Personnel Division of the Laboratory. It was stressed that the proposed cooperative education plan would supplement, but not supersede, the summer trainee program.

First Examination Held in 1953

During deliberation of the Board of Examiners the plan was discussed with representatives of other Naval activities, and a few decided to apply the plan to their own

agencies. With the approval of the Civil Service commission, the Board of Examiners issued the initial examination announcement covering the cooperative educational plan on October 28, 1952. The examination was established on an open continuous basis. However, in order to schedule the first written test on December 9, 1952, and to set up registers in February, 1953, an initial cutoff date of November 18, 1952, was established for receipt of applications for the first written test.

In spite of efforts to publicize the examination announcement, the first announcement produced few qualified eligibles. Coincident with the establishment of the initial register of eligibles by the Board of Examiners, a change of administration in the federal government took place on January 20, 1953, and shortly thereafter a ceiling freeze as well as budgetary reductions were imposed. These limitations resulted in a suspension of plans for a cooperative education program at the Laboratory during 1953. In 1954 reductions in force were generally no longer necessary. After the merits of a cooperative education program were again projected by the Personnel Officer, it was decided in the summer of 1954 that the Laboratory would actually inaugurate a cooperative education program.

Type of Examination Currently Given

In accordance with the 1954 examination announcement issued by the Board of Examiners, students selected are initially appointed to a GS-1 (\$2500 per annum), GS-2 (\$2750), GS-3 (\$2950), or GS-4 (\$3175). For appointment to a GS-1 position, the student has less than one-fourth of the total credits required for a bachelor's degree. For appointment to a GS-2 position at least one-fourth of the total credits required for a bachelor's degree is necessary; for GS-3 positions, at least one-half of the total credits required for a bachelor's degree is necessary; for GS-4 positions, at least three-fourths of the total credits required is necessary. As students complete additional academic training, they are promoted to a higher grade of trainee position until they receive their degree, at which time they may be assigned to work on a

full-time professional basis. Such promotions are made on the basis of records of service and no further written tests are required.

Under the terms of the examination announcement, applicants are required to take a written test of special visualization, of ability to evaluate scientific hypothesis, and of mathematical formulation. Applicants for chemist positions take a subject matter test in chemistry; applicants for positions in engineering and in physics take a subject matter test in physics; applicants for metallurgist positions take a combined examination in physics and chemistry. Candidates for mathematical positions take a subject matter test in mathematics. Competitors are rated on the written test on a scale of 100. Standards and weight used in rating the various parts of the examination depend upon the position for which the applicant is being rated and on the abilities needed for job success in the particular grade of positions.

Type of Work Performed by Students

Pursuant to civil service regulations, and after careful interviews, cooperative students were selected by the Laboratory in the Fall of 1954 in electrical and mechanical engineering and in physics from three institutions—Georgia Tech, Antioch, and Virginia Polytechnic Institute. The first student reported in September, 1954, for his initial period of practical training in a scientific division of the Laboratory. By the end of 1954, eight cooperative students had reported. Their civil service grades ranged from GS-1 to GS-4.

The number of cooperative students has increased steadily since the inception of the plan. During the Spring of 1955, the Laboratory had twelve cooperative education students. Metallurgy has been added to the fields in which cooperative education students are now specializing. It is anticipated that twenty cooperative education students will be employed by the Laboratory during 1955. It is believed that this number is but the beginning of a more extensive cooperative education program for 1956.

The duties of the cooperative education

positions vary, but the cooperative education student performs his assignments under professional guidance. Students participate in scientific research or other scientific or engineering work such as development, surveys, design, investigations, computations, laboratory or field experimentation or studies, and standardization testing. Students also prepare materials, equipment, or specimens for tests; students operate apparatus under carefully controlled conditions for precise measurements of such items as temperature, pressure, weight, volume and voltage; students record, plot, and analyze data from Laboratory experiments. Guidance and counseling for students are provided by senior scientists and professional members of the Training Branch of the Personnel Division.

Summary

The cooperative education program at the Naval Research Laboratory is too recent in origin to have furnished graduates for regular scientific and engineering appointments at the Laboratory. However, certain observations may be made at this time:

1. Relationships between the Laboratory and the cooperative institutions have been improved and it is thought that these relation-

ships will prove even more mutually advantageous in the future.

2. Useful pre-professional work has been performed at the Laboratory by the cooperative education students.

3. The students have had first-hand experience in working in a large government Laboratory.

4. The Laboratory has profited through the positive public relations which have accrued to the Laboratory after the student returns to his campus and explains his experiences at the Laboratory.

5. The civil service structure is adaptable to the cooperative education concept.

In view of the continuing needs of government for qualified scientific and technical personnel and of the objective of various educational institutions to train their students through special emphasis upon related practical work, the next few years appear to be an excellent period for an objective evaluation of the value of a cooperative education concept in a government laboratory. It is the hope of the Personnel Division of the Naval Research Laboratory that after a sufficient number of students have completed participation in the Laboratory's cooperative education plan, the time and effort expended in the development, installation, and administration of the program will be justified through a distinct improvement in the quality of its skilled manpower.

Simplifying Personnel Records Maintenance

Clarence F. Willey

ONE of the administrative responsibilities of a personnel unit is to provide answers to a number of statistical questions. The executive, committees of the legislative branch, and the personnel unit's own administrative and technical staff should be able to obtain on short notice up-to-the-minute personnel information on the entire service or on particular departments.

Information Personnel Department Should Provide

Any trend toward an increase or decrease in governmental employment, in relation to the amount and quality of work performed, may be an indicator of operational efficiency. The number of continuing vacancies yields, with analysis, a measure of the effectiveness of recruiting or the realism of the departmental staffing. Vacancies sometimes linger even when there is a sizable register. For its own protection, the personnel department must be able to categorize vacancies in terms of the reason for their persistence.

Other legitimate record-keeping needs include a listing of current position titles and a count of the distribution of classes among the different departments. Separations must be tallied as to cause to help provide turnover statistics. The classification section should maintain an adequate record of work performed. The examination section should tabulate applications received, examinations given, appointments made, and related data.

Statistical elaborations beyond the simple level enumerated above will only occasionally be worthwhile. The average salary in different departments or for the entire service might generate a newspaper headline, but the significance of such averages is dubious in view of the difficulty of making meaningful comparisons. If pay for individual classes has been properly

set, and if management has provided an ample but not padded staffing pattern, the functions of government, granted there is otherwise good administration, may be assumed to be properly performed. It is difficult to see what useful purpose can ordinarily be served by comparing departments with respect to average salaries or the proportion of employees at different pay levels; it is easy to see how such comparisons might lend themselves to invidious use. Still and all, basic personnel records should be kept in such a way that questions of this sort can be answered quickly and economically if asked for legitimate special uses.

Economical performance of the obvious and unavoidable statistical responsibilities of a governmental personnel department should be accomplished if employee records accurately and without delay yield data organized in terms of department, class of position, pay grade and step, and salary dollars.

Vermont Record System Unsatisfactory

For a number of years after a statewide personnel system had been established in Vermont, satisfactory answers to many basic personnel queries could not be given. A figure for total classified state employment, obtainable only after a number of days of rather chaotic research, commanded little confidence within the department itself. No need is felt to apologize for a state of affairs happily well in the past. A minimal staff was endeavoring to keep ahead of the more urgent pressures of classification and examination. The setting up of adequate record-keeping could be, and had to be, postponed. Education seemed preferable to invoking the Personnel Department's statutory authority in dealing with departments which, since their establishment, had been hiring certain classes of employees, particularly attendants and laborers, locally and informally, with only as much central reporting

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as was required for inclusion on the payroll. There were other gaps in the communication of basic statistical data: the distinction between classified and temporary employees was not always clearly understood, and reports of separations were not consistently forwarded to the Personnel Department.

The personnel program undoubtedly gained good will from recognizing the desirability of gradualness. Departments and institutions which had long been autonomous in hiring were by stages persuaded to accept and use forms for employment and separation which provided prompt and complete reporting—the indispensable preliminary to accurate record-keeping. But regardless of the virtues of making haste slowly, it became increasingly embarrassing to be unable to supply a prompt and correct picture of state personnel with respect to departmental and total strength, or with respect to classification distribution or salary scale and step distribution.

Survey Made of Method of Keeping Records

As soon as an increase in staffing was authorized to provide for a clerk who could devote full time to the maintenance of personnel records, a decision had to be made regarding the kind of record-keeping system to use. It was agreed that records should remain a definitely subordinate part of the Personnel Department's activities. Such records as were kept should be up-to-date and accurate, but they should not commandeer too many of the overextended staff's man-hours. A good many more man-hours than planned were expended in the developmental work needed to set up the record system. It is believed, however, that the ultimate returns will amply justify the investment of this time.

A visible file for recording employee classification and pay changes, with the cards banked loose in tubs, had been set up several years before and had proved satisfactory with respect to speed of locating and ease of posting. The alternatives of using punched cards or a key sort system were considered. They were rejected, in spite of many admirable features, as better suited for information more static than

classification and pay changes. With the punched card system, a change in pay would require a new card; with the key sort system, a change in pay would mean placing a patch over one or more of the marginal holes and punching a new slot. The preferred objective was a perpetual inventory of personnel, and both the punched card and key sort systems would call for machine or manual processing of the cards to obtain information needed. A thorough consideration of these and other alternatives did not bring forth adequate justification for giving up the tub visible record system as the depository of basic classification and pay data.

The employee record cards in this tub system, after an intensive campaign to persuade the departments served to report all personnel status changes, including those not requiring Personnel Department approval, finally yielded a current and accurate figure for the size of each departmental staff, and so, by totaling, a figure for total state classified employment. To secure these departmental sub-totals and the state total, however, a physical count of cards was required, and another count was necessary to determine the number of vacant positions. To obtain in addition a picture of the staffing of a department—a listing of authorized positions and a count of the number of employees in each class—the cards had to be handled again in another tallying. A further physical handling of each card was also required to tabulate the number of employees in each of the five steps of the twenty pay grades. It was discovered that tabulations made even at fairly long intervals would make demands on the records clerk which would intolerably delay the posting of current actions; the chore would also eat into the time of clerical employees whose regular and presumably full-time assignment was to the classification and examination work of the Personnel Department.

System Devised for Keeping Salary Data

The problem of how to make information on the distribution of salaries in the twenty pay grades and in the five steps in each grade more accessible for tabulation

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Figure 1. (Original 7" x 10")

was solved very simply by moving this information to the visible vertical margin of the employee record card in the tub file. (See Figure 1.) When the card was designed this valuable visible edge had been reserved for information on marital and veteran status which did not turn out to be needed for any personnel decision or other purpose subsequent to original appointment. It was finally recognized that this abandoned space could be put to good use. With the employee record cards arranged in banks of twenty-four, pay scale and step could be read off rapidly (as "5-A," "10-C," and so on) by one clerk and recorded on a tally sheet by another.

It may be wondered why such a simple improvement was arrived at only after more than a year of roundabout experimentation. This period of trial and error groping produced, among other equally ingenious and cumbersome arrangements, a file in which a 3 x 5 card for each employee was placed in the proper step subdivision of each pay grade division. Changes from the previous report period's figures were shown by having a blue card signify an addition to the number of cards in a given step, while a yellow card signified a subtraction. The previous report period's tabulation of number of employees in each step and grade, corrected to conform to the net changes indicated by the blue and yellow cards, gave the new information needed without the necessity for a physical count of the cards. In appearance this file was esthetically pleasing but unbusinesslike. Operationally, it had the fatal limitation that an error could be tracked down only by comparison of nearly three thousand 3 x 5 cards with the same number of employee record cards in the tub file. It should be related that considerable reluctance to abandon this unhandy system was encountered—which provides an additional unneeded proof of that comfortable inertia to which no one in the business of processing paper work should believe himself immune!

System Devised for Keeping Classification Data

Another change in our record keeping yielded something more productive than a

belated recognition of the obvious. A card file, again 3 x 5, has been set up for each department, with the subdivision guide tabs bearing the titles of all the positions in that department in alphabetical order. Behind these position title guides are placed individual cards on which are typed the name of the employee and the code designation of the employing department. In this file a guide card by itself, as one sees it looking along the file drawer, means a class with one position in (that department), and that position filled. If there is more than one position in a class in the department, an octagonal counter card $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches wide is placed behind the 3 x 5 guide card. This counter card bears two digits, separated by a dash, on the necessary number of edges to indicate the possible combinations of filled and vacant positions for that class in the department. (See Figure 2.) The counter card illustrated is used for a class represented by six positions in a department. The first digit gives the number of filled positions, the second the number of vacancies.

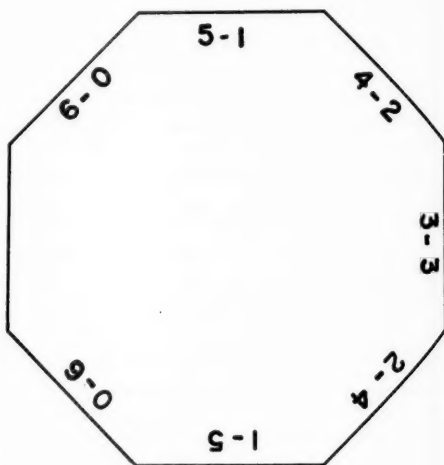


Figure 2. (Original $3\frac{1}{4}$ ")

A counter card with the "5-1" edge showing behind the guide card for Typist I would mean that a department has five Typists I on the payroll and is looking for another to fill a vacancy in a sixth authorized Typist I position. (See Fig. 3.) This counter card will be rotated to the "6-0"

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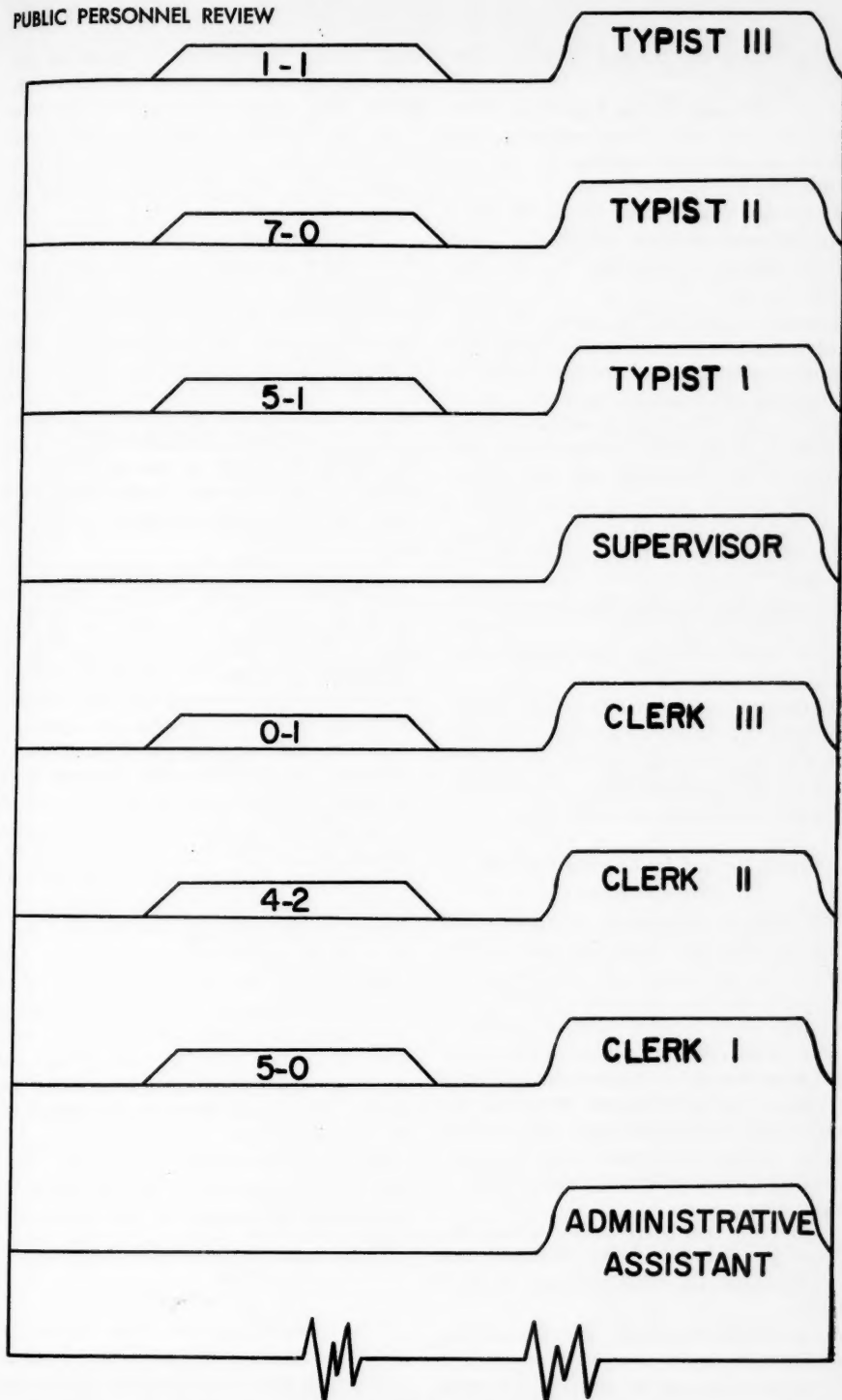


Figure 3

position when the needed Typist I has been hired.

If an additional Typist I position is authorized for the department, a counter card with the exposed edge reading "6-1" will be inserted behind the Typist I guide in place of the "6-0" card. When the additional position is filled, the "6-1" card will be rotated so that the "7-0" edge will be visible.

A reserve supply of the cards most commonly used is maintained, and additional counter cards can be quickly typed as needed for departments granted an increase in number of positions beyond the maximum provided for by the stock-piled counter cards. The reverse side of the counter card can be used in the infrequent event that variations in the number of vacancies exceed the capacity of the face of the card.

If there is a vacancy in a one-position class, a counter card with "0-1" on one edge is inserted behind the position title guide card.

As the majority of classes in any department are, for that department, one-position classes, the small number of counter cards needed makes possible good visibility of each counter card in the file.

System Devised for Keeping Track of Vacant Positions

The rapidity with which the number of filled positions and vacancies can be determined can be illustrated by reference to Fig. 3, a view of a departmental position file with some exaggeration of visibility. The counter cards are placed at the left of the file so that the contact of the left vertical edge of the card with the side of the file drawer will make accidental rotation less likely. It has been found that the possibility of such accidental displacement is negligible.

No counter cards are shown behind the guides for Administrative Assistant and Supervisor because these are one-position classes.

It is obvious from Fig. 3 that the number of filled and vacant position in any class in the department can be grasped at a quick glance. The total number of filled posi-

tions in the department is given by the formula: Number of Position Title Guide Cards plus Number of Filled Positions (shown by the digit at the left on the counter cards) minus Number of Counter Cards equals Total Filled Positions. In the example of Fig. 3, $8 + 22 - 6 = 24$.

The number of classes of positions authorized for the different departments seldom changes, so a table giving the number of authorized classes makes actual counting of the guide cards unnecessary. The same table gives the only slightly less fixed number of authorized positions; this value is used in another formula which provides an additional check: Filled Positions plus Vacancies (the digit at the right on the counter cards) equals Authorized Positions. In the example of Fig. 3, $24 + 5 = 29$.

The number of filled positions, as obtained from the 3 x 5 Position Title File, must correspond to the number of Employee Record cards in the tub file. A method of totaling the tub file Employee Record cards was worked out which drastically cut the very considerable time required to make an accurate physical count of nearly 3000 cards. A series of numbers (1 through 18) was printed on the Bristol board dividers which separated the banks of cards in the tub file. The cards are filed, without gaps, from the left side of the tub. The first number visible on the divider at the right of the Employee Record cards gives the count of cards in that bank. The clerk can pull the dividers toward him in succession with one hand to see how many cards are in each bank, and simultaneously with the other hand he can punch the count for each bank into an adding machine. The total number of Employee Record cards for even the larger departments can be obtained in two to three minutes; the totals for the smaller departments with up to fifty employees are added mentally.

In Summary

The advantages of the employee and position inventory system which has been developed by the State of Vermont Personnel Department are, in summary, as follows:

1. A tub file with loose cards presenting a visible edge permits quick locating and convenient posting of pay and position changes.

2. Use of the visible edge of the tub file employee position and pay record card to show pay scale and step in the scale facilitates rapid tabulation of the number of employees at each step of the respective pay scales. The number of employees at each step multiplied by the salary for that step gives the distribution of salary costs by departments.

3. The series of numbers on the dividers in the tub file enables a clerk to total employees by departments quickly and with little possibility of error.

4. A 3 x 5 card file with position title guide cards arranged alphabetically, and with octagonal cards indicating vacancies and more-than-one-position classes, provides an easily grasped picture of each department's staffing pattern. The current status of that pattern is shown in terms of filled positions and vacancies.

5. A table giving the number of authorized classes and the number of authorized positions for each department supplements the counter cards to make possible rapid computation and checking of the total number of filled positions and the total number of vacancies with no necessity for a physical count of position title guide cards or the employee cards in the 3 x 5 position title file.

6. The entire system provides an easily and economically maintained inventory of personnel. Errors should be extremely infrequent;

they have been negligible so far. When errors do occur, correction is simple through the self-checking characteristics of the system.

7. The inventory misses being completely visible because the dividers in the tub must be moved to expose the bank sub-totals. And it is not perpetual, in the strictest sense, since it takes a few seconds to obtain employee totals, either mentally or mechanically. These reservations are somewhat academic. Compared with alternative systems requiring direct or machine counting, the Vermont system may not inaccurately be called a perpetual and visible inventory.

8. It is difficult to estimate quantitatively the very substantial saving of employee-hours resulting from this reorganization of records-keeping procedure. Data previously obtainable only by inspecting and counting (and often repeatedly recounting) individual cards are now directly observable or easily computed. A system economical to install and simple to operate, requiring no handling or mechanical sorting of cards, yields accurate information which is available immediately because it is correct to the minute as each personnel action is posted.

9. It is believed that the principle of the counter card should have other applications. Polygonal counter cards could be designed for other types of perpetual inventory, and a single card of this type could be used to signal, with rotation, a number of kinds of change of status or types of warning by color or a suitable symbol.

Personnel Services for Local Government: The New Jersey Program

Ralph P. Shaw, Jr.

THE NEW JERSEY Civil Service Commission has provided personnel services to local governments within the state since 1908. The Civil Service Law and Rules for local governments are administered by the State Department of Civil Service under the direction of the Civil Service Commission. Only those counties, municipalities, and school districts who elect to come under the Civil Service Act ordinarily receive these services. Occasionally courtesy examination services have been provided on request to local governments not covered.

Local governments may elect to come under civil service by referendum vote. A proposal to adopt civil service is placed on the ballot by means of a petition signed by the voters of a political subdivision. The number of signatures varies with the size of the county or municipality. Adoption of civil service is then effected by a majority vote at a local or general election. Once a unit of local government legally adopts civil service there is no legal machinery for it to be relieved of its responsibilities under the Civil Service Law. Over the years eighteen of twenty-one counties, one hundred and one municipalities and five school districts have officially adopted the civil service system and are receiving the personnel services and merit system controls provided by the State Department of Civil Service.

The services given to local governments are those normally provided by a central public personnel agency and are the same as those provided for the state service, with one major exception. The Civil Service Commission has responsibility for setting pay rates for the State service but local governing bodies retain authority over pay for their own jurisdiction. The Commission may merely recommend salaries, wages or

pay plans in accordance with its classification of positions.

The provisions of the Civil Service Law for local governments apply only to those employees who are in the classified service. This includes all employees in positions not specifically designated by law as being unclassified and in general represents the career service. The classified service is divided into three categories:

1. The competitive division includes all classes of positions for which it is practicable to determine the merit and fitness of applicants for appointment by competitive examination.

2. The noncompetitive division includes other classes in the classified service (except the labor division) which it is impractical to include in the competitive division because the nature of the work, the relatively low rate of pay, or the place and conditions of employment make it impracticable to obtain a sufficient number of qualified applicants to meet the needs of the service by means of competitive examination. Appointments to this division are made after examination which is not competitive and as prescribed by the Commission.

3. The labor division includes ordinary unskilled laborer classes. Appointments are made from a labor register with preference given in accordance with date of application. In recent years with the tight labor market and better rates of pay in private industry, the direct hiring of laborers has been in part delegated to the appointing authorities subject to approval by the Department.

The Civil Service Commission determines the division to which a class shall be assigned and may from time to time, as conditions justify, change the assignment in the best interests of the service.

In order to provide similar services to the state and the local governments at the same time, the Department of Civil Service is organized to handle some of these services on a decentralized basis and some on a centralized or specialist basis. Two

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branch or local offices in addition to the main office in Trenton are maintained, one in Newark and one in Camden. The staffs of these branch offices maintain direct contact with the local officials on a day-to-day basis in the North Jersey area and the South Jersey area respectively. Central Jersey is similarly serviced by the main office staff. The branch offices provide complete service in routine administrative matters and handle the initial steps in personnel matters requiring technical services by specialized staffs and those administrative matters that involve major policy decisions, legal interpretations, or appeals.

Certification

Technical and administrative classification and reclassification services are provided to the covered counties, municipalities and school districts by the Division of Municipal Classification. This division is staffed with a director, five classification technicians, and a small clerical staff. Four of the staff work out of the Newark Office and two out of the main office in Trenton. They work in close cooperation with the branch offices' administrative staffs.

The Division is responsible for handling day-to-day classification maintenance. It also develops and installs complete classification plans for units of local government that adopt the Civil Service Law and for covered jurisdictions that request or need a full reclassification survey. Normally, at the time such classification studies are made, a compensation plan is prepared and recommended to the local governing body to be integrated with the classification plan. In many instances, the combination is effected, but often, since the pay authority rests with the governing body, considerable difficulties are encountered in adjusting the pay policy to the classification structure. Too often the value of the classification plan is weakened or lost by independent allocation of pay rates which is not consistent with sound classification. Of course, local autonomy over compensation for services reflects and maintains the governing body's financial policy and its ability to pay as it is controlled by its taxing policy. On occasion, however, such pay

administration does not represent the application of sound principles of salary and wage administration and is subject to local conditions that are extraneous to the personnel function. The Department of Civil Service is taking steps through its Research and Planning Division to provide sufficient community comparative salary and wage data to local administration so that they will have reliable information upon which to base their action.

The staff of the Division of Municipal Classification works feverishly throughout the year to keep abreast of the many classification problems that arise out of services embracing some sixty thousand local government civil service employees throughout New Jersey.

Recruitment and Selection

The Division of Examinations services the state government and the covered local governments with respect to recruitment and selection. It is staffed with a director, eleven test technicians, and some twenty clerical assistants. For the most part the technical staff is made up of subject matter specialists who have been trained in testing techniques. For local government examinations, the examinations staff works closely with the staff of the Municipal Classification Division so that such examinations will reflect the job situation in the locality and any special requirements or worker characteristics as are evident from the job analysis.

Due to the nature of the examination development and processing operation and the common denominators therein, most tests for both the state and local services are announced, prepared, administered, and rated concurrently on a regularly scheduled mass production basis. Examinations for classes that are unique to one or more jurisdictions, or for which special duties or requirements are indicated, may be held individually. Examinations for common classes in different jurisdictions are grouped together and processed as one combined examination. The breakdown into separate jurisdictions occurs during the final stages of processing when individual employment lists are prepared for

each political subdivision. A successful applicant may ultimately appear on four different eligible lists as a result of taking but one examination, e.g., his resident municipality, school district, and county lists and the state list.

The state-wide general clerical examinations for Clerk, Clerk Typist, and Clerk Stenographer and the multiple municipality Patrolman and Fireman examinations are significant examples of major operations under this method of examining for the state and local services. For these clerical classes, intensive state-wide recruitment is carried on for a month before tests are held. Then from five to ten thousand applicants are given written and performance tests on the same date, at the same time at local examination centers throughout the state. All applicants for municipal Patrolman and Fireman are examined in one day by running two sessions (A.M. and P.M.) at each center, one for Patrolman and one for Fireman. Since there are many applicants for both positions, during one assembly such applicants can take both tests, neither of which runs for over three hours. The prompt processing of examinations held in this manner is made possible by the enthusiastic cooperation of the examination staff and the extensive use of the test scoring machine and machine tabulating equipment.

Experience with such a complex examination program as New Jersey's has pointed up the necessity for flexibility in the overall program to provide for quality tests as well as quantity production. Hence the combination of two approaches, mass processing methods and individual processing methods, which have been integrated into a flexible operation that allows for both special examination situations and regular common denominator type examination situations. The workable solution for resolving procedural questions to provide this flexibility seems to be the close liaison between the examining staff and the municipal classification staff. This cooperation makes it possible to identify situations requiring special treatment and procedures can be readily adjusted to cope with the problem.

Since approximately 80 percent of the open competitive examinations are held for local governments and 60 percent of the annual number of applicants are interested in positions in the local governments, recruitment and selection services for counties, municipalities, and school districts represent the major portion of the Division's work load. On the average, the Division turns out open competitive employment lists at a rate well over one hundred a month and annually examines over thirty thousand applicants.

Promotion in the local government civil service as in the state service is accomplished through examination procedures. The Examination Division administers and processes such promotional examinations as are requested by the local appointing authorities. This part of the program presents many unusual problems because of the difference in size and scope of the local governments. Determinations of eligibility and promotional lines are often quite complex. This is especially evident after a reclassification survey has been made. The careful working out of these promotional situations with the municipal classification people is time consuming and represents a substantial proportion of the examination work program for the local services.

Certification

Placing successful candidates for positions in the local governments is handled on a decentralized basis through certification procedures based upon the rule of three, but subject to veterans' preference in both initial and promotional permanent appointments. Three eligibles are certified from the appropriate employment list for each vacancy. If there are no veterans among those certified, the appointing authority may select any of three. For initial appointment, if veterans are included in the certification, disabled veterans must be offered appointment in accordance with their standing on the list before regular veterans, then the veterans in their order before nonveterans. For promotional appointment when veterans are among the three certified, if a veteran is first or highest, a veteran from among those certified

must be offered the appointment, otherwise selection from among the three applies.

Certification units for the local services are maintained and supervised in each of the branch offices and the main office for the respective geographical areas. Employment lists are furnished to these units by the Examination Division and the placement of eligibles is handled through direct contact with the local appointing authorities in each area. This work is facilitated by the preparation of certification cards for each eligible by the machine tabulating unit as a final step in promulgating employment lists.

Conditions of Employment

Specific regulations for attendance, hours of work, and leaves of absence for employees of the local government services are the responsibility of the local authorities. Such regulations, however, must conform to the minimum or limiting requirements set forth in the Civil Service Law. For example, as a minimum, classified local civil service employees are to be granted as annual vacation leave one working day for each month of service during the first year; after one year and up to twenty years of service, twelve working days; after twenty, sixteen working days. Sick leave, disability leave with pay, and leaves of absence without pay are similarly provided for by statute. Extensions of leaves of absence beyond periods authorized to be granted by appointing authorities are subject to approval by the Civil Service Commission. These everyday matters, as they pertain to advising local officials and employees and insuring conformity to statutory standards, are handled by the branch office administrative staffs.

Suspension, fining, and demotion of local civil service employees are also regulated by the Civil Service Law. The State Civil Service Commission exercises supervision over these actions by promulgating rules and procedures to be followed by local authorities in processing such cases and hearing appeals covering a period greater than five days at one time or an aggregate of thirty days in any one year.

The Commission's appellate jurisdiction over the local government services applies to any violation of the provisions of the Civil Service Statutes by any board, body, public officer, official or employee of a county, municipality or school district operating under the Civil Service Law. The preliminary processing and investigating of appeals arising out of the local services is done by the branch offices staffs prior to going to the Commission for hearing and ruling. Any citizen of the state may appeal to the Superior Court when there is a violation of the provisions of the Civil Service Law in selecting persons for employment, in the designation of any employee for appointment, or in the suspension or removal of employees from office.

Payroll Auditing

The basic control device in the New Jersey Civil Service system for the local governments is the certification of payrolls. Before any fiscal officer of a county, municipality, or school district operating under the Civil Service Law can make payment to any classified employee, the appointing authority must have the written approval of the Commission's Chief Examiner and Secretary that those employees appearing on the payroll have been appointed, employed, reinstated, or promoted in accordance with the Civil Service Law and Rules. The responsibility for paying an employee illegally is placed on the appointing authority. Therefore the local governing bodies submit their payrolls to the Department of Civil Service regularly. The payroll auditing staffs of the main and branch offices check each payroll against the Departments' personnel records for employment in compliance with the civil service requirements.

Two separate payrolls are submitted for approval by each local appointing authority, one for permanent employees which is pre-audited once a month; one for temporary or provisional employees that is checked twice a month. Local authorities are requested to earmark changes from one payroll to the next in order to assist the payroll staffs in making the audit.

The payroll certification operation for

so many political subdivisions represents a tremendous volume job that has to be accomplished regularly within rigid time requirements so that employees will be paid on time. The Department is continually searching for more efficient methods to simplify the work and reduce the time involved without sacrificing the effectiveness of the control. This procedure is one way that the Commission can maintain current information with respect to the local governments' conformity to the Civil Service Law and Rules.

Summary

The personnel services provided by the State Civil Service Commission for local governments have grown from a limited program for a few counties and municipalities to a highly complex and extensive program. At first, the emphasis was on control of appointments through civil service examinations and the regulation of civil service tenure, layoffs, conditions of work, and disciplinary actions. In recent years the program has expanded to reflect the various aspects of modern public personnel administration with a greater emphasis on services rather than negative controls. Classification services have been more fully developed. More of the administration of local services has been decentralized to the branch offices.

Along with the growth of the scope of the services has come the continued addition of counties and municipalities to the civil service fold. The scope and size of local government itself has grown steadily in the last two decades. The increase in numbers of local civil service employees has reflected this expansion and has increased the individual problems of local personnel administration commensurately. Among

the many cities that are operating under the Civil Service Law are the large cities of Newark, Camden, Jersey City, Paterson, Atlantic City, and Trenton. Services for governments of cities of this size present a variety of personnel problems and require continuous attention that in effect represents the administration of several individual personnel systems of considerable size.

The Department has been slow in obtaining additional staff to keep pace with the steadily expanding scope of local services. Funds for administering the local services as well as the state service are budgeted from the state treasury. Local governments do not contribute any funds for the services they receive. Therefore when counties or municipalities adopt the Civil Service Law, the budget is not increased directly to reflect the additional work involved. Consequently the Department often has not had adequate staff to fully perform all of the services desired. However, the staff has met these adverse conditions by working many extra hours and by simplifying procedures to realize the quickest service. A creditable job is and has been done in providing local governments with effective service.

The New Jersey personnel program is basically a mandatory obligation on the part of the State Civil Service Commission to provide services and controls for local government personnel administration, once the citizens of a political subdivision have voted to come under the Civil Service Law. The State Department of Civil Service, under the supervision of the Commission, acts as the central public personnel agency for the covered local governments and carries out most of the functions characteristic of central personnel.

personnel

opinions

- What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

The editors have posed the same question to a number of administrators and have asked them to comment on the various points it raises. Here's what they say.

The Question

To what extent, if at all, should civil service commissioners and personnel officials take positive action to muster support for or against legislation that would directly affect the personnel program?

The Replies

THE HON. JOSEPH S. CLARK, JR., Mayor of the City of Philadelphia

I am an advocate of positive action. My direct answer to the question is that the Civil Service Commissioners and Personnel Director should take positive action to the fullest extent possible in accordance with law and consistent with acceptable ethical standards.

Having said this, I should like to test it out by assuming several circumstances and defining what in my opinion the proper action should be.

First, let us assume that the City Council is dissatisfied with a Charter requirement, that the Civil Service Commission and the Personnel Department receive an annual appropriation at least equal to one-half of one percent of total appropriations for personal services of those employees in the Civil Service. They feel that this is an improper restriction on their legislative responsibility to appropriate funds for operating the City government. Assume that the Council prepares legislation which when passed will be submitted to the electorate as an amendment to the Charter striking this

minimum appropriation requirement from that basic law of the City.

My view is that here is clearly a case for positive action. The members of the Civil Service Commission and the Personnel Director would be obliged to use every proper means to impress on the members of Council that such legislation should not be passed by them and referred to the electorate. While the measure is before the Council, I feel that "proper" means includes appearing at the public hearing and presenting fully and forcefully all the arguments the Commissioners and the Director can muster; conferring with as many of the members of Council as possible privately to persuade them to oppose the legislation; and to talk as persuasively as possible to the political leadership which may be advising the members of Council. While the matter is before the Council I would consider it improper for the Commissioners and the Director to enlist or stir up opposition from outside civic groups, good government citizen organizations and the like. These groups should, and undoubtedly will, appear at the public hearing but they should come before the Council armed with their own "snowballs," not ones made for them by the Civil Service officials most vitally affected. They will listen to the pleas of the Commissioners and the Director at the public hearing. If what they hear is repeated by them for emphasis, no damage is done to the relationships between the Commission, Director, and City Council.

Assuming that the Council passes the legislation for the referendum in this matter, I feel that the Commissioners and the Director have an obligation to carry their side of the story to the people. Again, the manner in which they tell the story is extremely important. A campaign of name calling and vituperation involving condemnation of the members of City Council would be in bad taste. On the other hand, a statement should be made of the honest difference in opinion which exists on the matter and an explanation of why the Personnel Department needs certain guaranteed

funds and what could happen to the merit system if these funds were drastically reduced. It must be an educational type of campaign in which the help of civic groups (goo goos and the like) are well informed and can distribute literature to the voters. Every effort should be made to enlist an organization independent of the Commission and the Director to front for the campaign, with the officials always available for speaking engagements.

It is inevitable that even under the best of management and intentions, if the Commissioners and the Personnel Director through activities as outlined above, succeed in defeating the referendum, some members of the City Council will be resentful. I don't see how this can be avoided. It can be minimized by the manner in which the job is done—but no encounter of this sort results in both sides winning and there are among all groups some persons who are poor losers. If no personal attacks are made the bitterness may wear off in time.

Let us consider another case in which the State Legislature might be involved. Assume that an effort is being made in the legislature to remove a considerable block of employees (say all manual unskilled workers) from the protection of civil service. It is state legislation but its general terminology includes employees of all municipalities.

Here again is an issue on which the Civil Service Commission and the Personnel Director will be expected to speak out. Some effort should be made to determine what local forces, if any, are pressing for this action in the state legislature. If members of the Council or the political leadership of a substantial group of the Council are behind the legislation the Commissioners and the Director must be aware of the "land mines" present in the situation.

At the public hearing before the proper committee in the legislature the Commissioners and the Director can speak out. For this hearing, since it is one level removed from the local legislative body, aid can be marshalled by the Commissioners by contacting civic groups and seeing that they are properly informed. Releases should be prepared for the newspapers with enough "meat" that the papers will pick up ideas for editorials. Behind the scenes contacts should be made with the political leadership to try to show them the error in supporting this kind of legislation. Aid should be enlisted from the unions representing City employees. In all of this the Commission can take the leadership. Again, it must be handled in a manner not offensive person-

ally to any of the members of Council or even to the members of the Legislature.

Naturally, in discussing this kind of question, one is guided by experience in a certain government framework. I would expect that the extent to which the Civil Service Commissioners and the Director take positive action depends on the attitude of the Chief Executive who has appointed them. Maybe the Chief Executive would prefer to speak out so positively himself that it would not be necessary for the Commissioners or the Director to become so prominently involved. Also, the Chief Executive may be the one to make the contacts with the political leadership and thus relieve the Commissioners of this task, which may be in a very sensitive area. It would be expected that much of the Chief Executive's ammunition would be furnished by the Commissioners and the Personnel Director.

In conclusion, what positive action is taken does depend largely on how sensitive the sponsors of the legislation are to opposition, and whether the issue is one in which the Commissioners may speak out without a serious deteriorating effect on the relationships with the legislative body which must pass on its annual appropriations and with which it should be developing the best possible rapport.

HERBERT W. CORNELL, formerly Secretary and Chief Examiner, Milwaukee City Service Commission (Retired).

In the minds of many civic-minded citizens disapproval of any legislative contacts by those public servants who may be affected by proposed legislation has been developed to such an extent that they feel anybody who approaches legislators on the subject of a pending bill or even appears before a legislative committee is a "lobbyist" and anything in the nature of "lobbying" is contrary to civic morality. The very word "lobbyist" has come to designate, in the minds of many upright people, a person distinctly less than respectable. It is, of course, easy to find instances of improper, and even criminal, conduct by professional lobbyists. Yet the fact remains that lobbying is an essential part of our democratic governing process. As long as legislation on technical subjects continues to be made, legislative representatives, call them by what name you wish, will be needed to place before legislators the information, the argumentative reasons, and the planned objectives which indicate a need for new legislation, or, conversely, which show that some proposed amendment to the statutes, even though sponsored by good people in good

faith, may be deleterious to the cause of good public personnel administration. It may be correct to call this "lobbying," but there is nothing wrong with lobbying if it is done in an ethical manner.

When considering the circumstances which may call for legislative contacts, one thinks immediately of seeking support for bills to extend the classified service, or to grant increased powers in certain directions to civil service commissioners or their staff executives, or to secure greater financial support, or, on the other hand, to oppose bills which would exempt positions from competitive civil service or which would restrict the powers of civil service commissioners or of personnel directors. These are primary factors, of course, and they represent the kind of legislation in which the personnel man has the most direct interest; one might almost say selfish interest. But there are many other kinds of legislative bills likely to be propounded on which his voice should be heard; for example, bills to authorize collective bargaining between municipalities and their employees; bills to recognize a closed shop among craftsmen in certain municipal departments, and bills to increase or reduce employee privileges and fringe benefits. Such bills are usually drafted and pushed by organizations with whom the benefit to their members, rather than any benefit to the public, is the primary consideration.

Vital interests of the community depend on a correct handling of such problems, and this correct handling makes essential the possession by the legislators of correct and thorough information. Who is in a better position to give them the necessary unprejudiced and objective information than the public personnel man? Legislators need expert advice from people who know and who do not have an axe to grind.

There is another field in which the public personnel man should make his appearance before legislators. Suppose that, in good faith and with good motives, some legislation is proposed without considering a possible conflict with an existing civil service law? Most states have legislative reference offices (so-called "bill factories") which are supposed to catch and reconcile such conflicts, but in the pressure of a busy legislative session they cannot do a thorough job. Court records abound with cases where perplexed personnel administrators have struggled to obey conflicting laws; a situation which might have been avoided if they had appeared before the proper legislative committees and (not necessarily in a partisan manner) had explained the problem. For example,

there has been a rash of legislation in recent years to keep subversives and members of proscribed organizations out of the public service or to discharge them if they are discovered. Usually the personnel department is charged with the responsibility. In all too many cases, however, it is hampered by other laws which forbid any questioning of candidates or of employees as to their political beliefs or ideologies. It would be a simple matter to include a proviso that such laws are modified to the extent necessary to give effect to the new legislation, but this has rarely been done. The public personnel man is the one who can best point out the difficulty and suggest the remedy. Legislators would usually welcome his suggestions.

While the personnel technician should be the one to handle such matters, there are many instances where the general principles of the merit system, rather than technical details, should be stressed. In this work, appearances by civic and business leaders, such as representatives of Leagues of Women Voters, good government associations, civic or city clubs, chambers of commerce, business associations, industrial relations associations and organized labor, can, and will, prove effective, and such people generally are willing to do their part. Officers of professional associations such as engineering societies, bar associations, organizations of architects, of accountants, etc., can, and will, assist when matters in their fields are involved.

Should professional lobbyists be employed? The writer's answer is an emphatic "No." Legislators recognize them for what they are, and discount their arguments as merely "paid stuff." Professional lobbyists are seldom versed in the intricacies of the matters they are presenting, and are apt to make errors which can be extremely embarrassing as well as harmful. Their chief stock in trade is their claim that they "know the ropes" and that their contacts with legislators give them a stand-in. That such contacts exist is undeniable, but their significance is quite another matter. The tendency of the professional lobbyist to overrate the importance of his contacts reminds one of the story of the two traveling salesmen who met at the close of the day. Said one, "I made some very valuable contacts today" to which the other grumpily replied, "I didn't sell anything either."

Above all, it is a mistake to adopt any of the favor-courrying techniques used by professional lobbyists. It does not increase the chances of success to take legislators out to dinner; it only arouses suspicion as to motive. Trifling indications of cordiality are, of course, legitimate; but it is well to adopt the rule in

vogue in one bureau at Washington, "One cigar is a gentlemanly courtesy. Two cigars constitute an ethical problem. Three are a bribe!"

THE HON. OLIN D. JOHNSTON, United States Senate; Chairman, Committee on Post Office and Civil Service.

It should be recognized at the outset that the question here raised involves personnel officials at state and municipal levels as well as those at the national level. My discussion of the subject is limited to the latter group, as my public service career during recent years has been entirely in this area.

In further defining the problem, it should be pointed out that federal law severely limits the methods whereby federal officials may legitimately take action for or against pending or proposed legislation. Space limitations prohibit a full citation of 62 Stat. 792, U.S. Code. Suffice it to say that no money appropriated for the operation of government agencies may legally be expended by any official or employee of the federal government for the purpose of influencing the vote of any Member of Congress with respect to pending or proposed legislation.

The only exceptions to the provisions of the cited law are such as to permit federal officials to sponsor legislation, through official channels in the executive branch of government, and to appear in person or otherwise present their views regarding pending or proposed legislation, at the invitation of the Congress or any member thereof.

In the light of present legal restrictions, there remains to be considered the question of what federal personnel officials can and should do regarding pending or proposed legislation, or in sponsoring desirable legislative action.

I believe the experienced and dedicated personnel officials of our federal agencies have a great opportunity for service in the area of legislative proposals, with due regard to proper methods and transmission channels. If the ability, experience, and vision of our federal personnel officials were not encouraged and put to work in promoting the improvement of our federal government operation, through legislative suggestions as well as otherwise, it would indeed be a tragic waste of talent and creative energy.

We all accept the proposition that incentive programs and awards promote the efficiency, usefulness, and morale of the individual employee, as well as the efficiency and economy of operation of the federal establishment. It should follow that some system of recognition

should be adopted with regard to outstanding suggestions for legislative action.

If it is agreed that federal personnel officials should be encouraged to sponsor and support legislation, it is obvious that their influence and energy may legitimately be called into play to oppose any legislation against which they may be able to bring sound arguments based on experience and knowledge.

The basic problem, I believe, is to recognize and utilize the proper available channels for action by personnel officials with respect to legislative matters.

In this connection, full utilization of existing personnel and management organizations should be made. These groups can, and should, act as sounding boards and as forums for development and sponsorship of new ideas for constructive or corrective legislation to improve federal personnel regulations and procedures.

Such organizations, as well as individual personnel officers, should be able to communicate readily and effectively through the Civil Service Commission Inter-Agency Personnel Advisory Group to the Civil Service Commission and the White House for the purpose of sponsoring or opposing legislative action.

The present law does not prohibit sound, properly channeled initiative in this field, on the part of civil service commissioners or other federal personnel officials. Here, however, a note of caution is indicated. Agencies and officials of the federal government should be at considerable pains to protect themselves against charges that their presentations regarding pending or proposed legislation are unbalanced or distorted by political considerations. Such charges have in fact been made, with disturbing frequency, during the past several years.

I regret that an instance of partiality by a federal agency occurred in the session of the Congress just ended, when my bill S. 67 to increase federal employee salaries was under consideration. With respect to the report of the Civil Service Commission, I was forced to rise on the floor of the Senate to state that "the Committee was neither impressed nor helped by the accuracy, quality, or timeliness of the Civil Service Commission's report on this bill. Of even greater significance is the fact that the report has the appearance of being worded in a manner designed to deliberately deceive the Congress in its consideration of this important measure."

Let the executive agencies and individual personnel officials by all means utilize their opportunities in the field of legislation, pro-

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

vided that due care is taken to achieve that impartiality and accuracy without which the public service is rendered sterile and ineffective.

With the above reservation, I am most heartily in favor of encouraging initiative and impartiality on the part of our highly qualified and capable federal personnel officers. The Congress should welcome their properly channeled and impartially presented assistance in the joint effort to achieve sound and progressive legislation in the personnel field. In such cooperative endeavor, there is every prospect of maximum effectiveness within the public service agencies, and maximum productivity and satisfaction among individual federal employees.

JAMES R. WATSON, Executive Director, National Civil Service League.

Every public official has a responsibility to be aggressive in bringing to the public the fullest possible information regarding his program and the principles under which he works. This applies to civil service commissioners and personnel directors who should be continually active in keeping the public informed. They cannot sit in an ivory tower if efforts are being made to destroy the program under which they serve the public.

The basic question is, who does what and how? Certain types of legislative activity are looked upon with disfavor because of some of the methods used by certain politicians. All public officials, and especially civil service officials, should avoid activities which are not acceptable in the public eye. A high degree of statesmanship is essential, but statesmanship does not mean being aloof from reality in academic isolation. Such officials should avoid "log-rolling" and all forms of pressure activities, including commitments which would involve special favors or other acts adverse to the administration of civil service.

In regard to legislative activities, some distinctions can be made between the civil service commissioner, the personnel director appointed by the chief executive, and the personnel director who is a part of the career service.

The Civil Service Commissioner: The civil service commissioner is generally in a somewhat different position from the personnel director. The modern civil service commissioner is theoretically a maker of policy and a representative of the public, regardless of whether he is an appointee of the chief executive or (much more rarely) of a special citizen committee or panel.

The civil service commissioner almost as a

matter of duty should cultivate friendly relations with members of the legislature, especially those known to be sympathetic with the merit system. He should try to educate them regarding the value of an efficient personnel system, and the necessity of appropriating funds adequate to maintain it. It is part of a sound public relations policy for the personnel agency to keep the legislators informed about its needs, aims, problems and operations. The personnel agency—along with all other units of government—must deal with the legislature collectively, with its committees, and with individual members.

Legislative action often reflects the desires and viewpoints of pressure groups. Bills pushed by members responsive to such groups may be enacted simply because the other members are not made aware of the practical effect on civil service administration. Civil service commissioners often have it within their power to deter legislators from yielding to pressure of one kind or another in favor of special interests or special causes. For example, bills are frequently introduced which would tamper with examination requirements or rating, would establish multiple appeals in disciplinary cases, or would "cover in" or "uncover" various classes of employees. If commissioners will expend the extra effort to win the confidence of members of the legislature, they will be in a better position to obtain a hearing for valid arguments against attempts to favor certain groups at the expense of the majority, or to handicap personnel administration by imposing burdensome requirements or restrictions.

It goes without saying that this "contact work" must be done without partisan bias or high-pressure lobbying. Statements about pending or proposed legislation must be factual, temperate, and objective. This is especially true when controversial political questions are involved. At such times the commission may even find it wise to leave the more direct defense or attack to the chief executive or to civic organizations which have a special interest in good government.

The Personnel Director: The activities and cautions directed to the civil service commissioner apply with even greater force to the personnel director.

The personnel director who is not in the civil service, is appointed by the chief executive and serves at his pleasure. He must coordinate his legislative activities with those of the chief executive. He should emphasize the importance of having the mayor or governor take the in-

itiative. When he speaks he should do so as the representative of the Chief Executive.

The personnel director who is in the career civil service must limit his legislative activities to those which will not risk impairing the confidence of all citizens in his impartiality. He can be active on legislative matters no more than any other career civil servant without "taking sides." A career personnel director who is reputed to be a partisan of any group or interest, whether it be an employee union, a taxpayer's association, or a political faction, has destroyed his usefulness to some degree. Never again can he be regarded as the impartial servant of all.

Furthermore, he makes himself and his agency vulnerable to legislative reprisals which in the long run may damage the personnel program to an extent far offsetting the positive value of his activity.

Regardless of his legal status, the personnel director should refrain from anything which could be construed as lobbying. He should limit himself to giving information and opinions on legislation. His opinions will have far greater weight if—by his own past conduct—he

is insulated from partisan influence and partisan attack.

A good civil service commissioner and personnel director will know who his friends are, both civic organizations and civic-minded individuals. Rather than wait until trouble starts, the leading citizens' groups, civic organizations, business and women's associations should be regularly informed of progress and developments. If such groups and individuals have been properly informed throughout all developments, they will often be in the forefront of the fight. It is to be hoped that these groups, which truly represent the public, will make unnecessary "embarrassing" pressure activities emanating from official sources.

It is my opinion that civil service officials should defend themselves and their programs. They must, however, exercise extreme caution about the manner in which they do this, in order to avoid activities which will contribute to the destruction of the program rather than save it. Above all, they should remember that a positive public relations program is an essential factor toward enlightened legislation concerning public administration.

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Promotion Policies in the Public Service

The feature is possible because of the cooperation of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. This bibliography on promotion policies was prepared by the staff of the Commission's Library under the direction of Mrs. Elaine Woodruff, Librarian.

Asher, John W., Jr.

Making a promotion plan work. *Public personnel review*, vol. 12, no. 4, October 1951, pp. 187-189.

Describes successfully operating promotion plan in the Rural electrification administration.

Berger, Philip R. and Arthur G. Rasch.

How do you develop an effective promotional program for a large-scale government operation which adheres to the principles of the merit system and also meets the needs of management for speed in filling key vacancies? *Public personnel review*, vol. 13, no. 3, July 1952, pp. 146-148.

Mr. Berger's reply to this question discusses the use of well-known management aids in the promotion program, with particular emphasis on advance planning of personnel requirements, a clear organizational pattern, and good communications within the agency.

Mr. Rasch discusses the functions and role of the operating agency and the central personnel agency in developing an adequate promotion program.

Blansfield, Michael G.

Promotion from within: does it really pay off? *Management review*, vol. 42, no. 5, May 1953, pp. 256-257.

Examines the pros and cons of promotion from within and suggests a middle road which allows a certain amount of placement from without to inject new ideas and to offer opportunities for objective evaluation of previous policies.

Civil service assembly of the United States and Canada. Committee on placement in the public service and Committee on probation in the public service. pp. 47-80.

Placement and probation in the public service; reports. Chicago, 1946.

Emphasizes the point that "promotion is as important an aspect of the selection process in public personnel administration as original recruitment." Examines various types of promotion such as direct promotion and promotion by reallocation of position, and explores major problems of promotion policy.

Davidoff, Melvin D.

The use of tests in promotion programs. *Personnel administration*, vol. 18, no. 4, July 1955, pp. 17-24, 44.

Presents results of a limited study of validity of tests used in a clerical promotional program in the U. S. Navy Department, Bureau of ships, and discusses "certain technical considerations which must be kept in mind in carrying out and in evaluating validity studies, . . ."

Joint college-federal service council for Southern California.

Crediting education and training toward promotion. Los Angeles, 1953. 3 pp.

Factors and methods for determining weight to be given educational courses in crediting education and training toward promotion.

Kennedy, James J.

The development of promotion systems in the federal government. Washington, George Washington university, School of government, 1954. 132 pp.

A thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Personnel Administration.

Surveys current promotion practices in a number of federal agencies and evaluates them in the light of accepted principles.

Kidd, Charles V.

Resolving promotion problems in a federal research institution. *Personnel administration*, vol. 15, no. 1, January 1952, pp. 13-23, 33.

Use of a promotion board by the National institute of health as an effective means of adapting promotion procedures under civil service rules to promotion policies for research workers, whose individual abilities are more significant than the particular job they fill, in many cases.

McCauley, William E.

Some reflections on promotion from without. *Personnel administration*, vol. 16, no. 6, November 1953, pp. 11-17.

Study shows that management seldom needs to go afield for additional assistance. It has only to familiarize itself with the potential within its own organization. Promotion from within is an old custom, rooted in the idea that reward for effort spurs to greater effort.

Michigan. Civil service commission.

A state civil service agency experiments with the use of a promotional potential rating system in a promotional examination program. Lansing, 1950. 5 pp.

Rating system devised to evaluate an employee's over-all potential for promotion.

Mosher, William E., J. Donald Kingsley, and O. Glenn Stahl.

Public personnel administration. 3rd ed. New York, Harper & brothers, 1950. 652 pp.

Chapter 7: Selection: From within the service. Points out the difficulties which lie in the path of efficient promotion systems, and examines machinery necessary for sound selection.

Olson, Ruth L.

The design and installation of promotion policies and procedures. *Personnel administration*, vol. 13, no. 1, September 1950, pp. 19-22.

Describes promotion procedures worked out by Bureau of aeronautics.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

Stahl, O. Glenn.

Perspective on promotion policy. *Public personnel review*, vol. 15, no. 3, July 1954, pp. 115-121.

Reviews briefly the commonly alleged shortcomings and virtues of the government promotion situation, and points out areas in which policy needs to be clarified and sharpened. Considers problems involved in determining the area of selection, methods of publicizing vacancies, and methods for discovering best promotional material among existing staff members.

Torpey, William G.

Promotion from within. *Public personnel review*, vol. 13, no. 4, October 1952, pp. 176-178.

Description and analysis of the formal promotion program of the Naval research laboratory with a list of seven suggested principles which might form the foundation for the analysis of any promotion plan.

Trudeau, W. J.

Promotions in the public service. *Civil service review*, vol. 24, no. 1, March 1951, pp. 30-32.

Policy and procedure regarding promotions in the Canadian civil service.

U. S. Civil service commission.

Selecting supervisors, prepared by Milton Mandell and Sally Greenberg. Washington, 1951. 26 pp.

Lists and discusses qualities desirable in candidates considered for promotion to supervisory positions, and essential elements of a supervisory selection program. Includes sample voucher forms for first level and higher supervisory positions.

U. S. Civil service commission. Inspection division.

Building better promotion programs. Washington, U. S. Govt. print. off., 1952. 28 pp. (Personnel management series no. 2)

Lists and discusses seven fundamental principles which should be observed in developing and administering an effective promotion program. Uses as examples well-planned programs in various federal agencies.

U. S. Civil service commission. Program planning division.

Notes on promotion. Washington, 1955. 3 pp.

Summarizes present promotion procedures in the federal government, showing the authority and responsibility of the appointing authority, and what help he may expect from the Civil service commission. Includes time-in-grade requirements, and six guides for a promotion program as set forth by the Civil Service Commission.

U. S. Department of the army.

Better employee utilization through planned promotion programs. Washington, U. S. Govt. print. off., 1954. 40 pp. (Civilian personnel pamphlet no. 51)

Guide for establishing and administering promotion programs. Includes suggested content of a promotion policy and suggestions for announcing vacancies and using promotional charts.

White, Leonard D.

Introduction to the study of public administration. 4th ed. New York, Macmillan company, 1955. pp. 379-385.

Points out that the primary objective of a promotion system "is to secure the best possible incumbents for the higher positions, while maintaining the morale of the whole organization." Examines some of the artificial barriers which exist in the promotion ladder and discusses how to overcome them.

Wolfspurger, Ellsworth.

Careers and competition. In Society for personnel administration. The federal career service—a look ahead. Washington, 1954. pp. 107-110. (Pamphlet no. 8)

A criticism of the promotion system as it operates in the federal government today. Mr. Wolfspurger states that "it is characterized by much policy pronouncement of lofty principles but little action to provide the means whereby the principles can be put in force." Points out that the tools are available and that stronger measures must be taken to implement principles.



Book and Pamphlet Reviews

Wage and Salary Administration. David W. Belcher. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1955. 503 pp. \$9.00.

Here is a book on wage administration and classification which achieves some balance between fundamental principles and the mechanical techniques of applying them; a book which can be read for ideas without an excess of detail.

As such, it will serve a real need of the executive who is too busy and too far removed from the operation of his pay and classification program to be interested in the techniques but who wants an insight into what his technicians are doing.

It will stimulate managers and personnel officers to a fundamental review of their salary and wage program; it will help them to counterbalance the pay and classification specialists when these become carried away with their own techniques.

It will provide colleges with an introductory survey of the whole field of pay administration, yet it is not lacking in technical scope and competence. The fast running text gives an organized presentation of theories and practices, while the footnotes furnish extensive references to the technical studies available in books, pamphlets, and professional journals.

The author gives due regard to those who have striven hard to bring pay administration and classification into an order and discipline

approaching a science; but he has not himself become deluded that it is a science. He can still discuss the advantages and disadvantages of one elaborated system as compared with another, and advocate none of them. He can weigh them all against the practical fact that none of them fits all occupational and management situations. He can expound the merits of statistics and percentages and distributions and point values for pages (which the reader can skip), and still freely concede that all these are premised upon judgments which may be no more valid than a subjective judgment made without the comptometer.

The book is not in perfect balance. The author becomes expansive in reprinting or summarizing methods of quantitative job evaluation where references to his sources might have sufficed. In other areas, he is brief almost to topical outline. But these shortcomings are minor. The book is a comprehensive text—short enough for a busy reader and readable throughout.—JOHN BAMBERG, *Assistant Regional Classification and Wage Officer, Region 2, U.S. Bureau of Reclamation.*

Selecting and Developing First-Line Supervisors. George D. Halsey, Harper and Bros., New York, 1955. 203 pp. \$3.50.

If one defines the goal of personnel administration to be the development of an atmosphere within an organization so that maximum

efficiency can be achieved, then it is essential that a considerable amount of attention be paid to the supervisor-employee relationship. There is probably no impact on an employee that is more significant than the kind of supervision which he receives.

As Halsey points out, recent research findings reveal that there is an important relationship between the kind of supervision an employee receives and both his productivity and the satisfaction he receives from his work. The selection and development of supervisors is, therefore, a prime function of management.

Halsey is especially qualified to discuss this subject, having been in personnel work for over thirty-six years, in both private and public organizations. In an extremely well-organized fashion, the author presents a program for the selection of first-line supervisors that can be adapted for use in practically any type of enterprise.

In addition to including the well established principle of top management support, and participation by all levels of management including the first-line supervisors, Halsey stresses the need for improving the morale of supervisors by correcting those conditions which tend to lower morale. These are such factors as: restoring his standing in the eyes of the people he supervises, a clear definition of his authority, adequate training, a feeling that he is really part of management, adequate pay differential, a feeling of security in his position, and opportunity for advancement.

In a chapter on "Qualities Significant in Predicting the Success of a Supervisor," the author lists motivation; ambition; family backing; health and energy; personal appearance; persuasiveness, including enthusiasm; tact and convincing manner; friendliness and willingness to help people with their problems; ability to teach; initiative, including courage; self-confidence; decisiveness; constructive inventiveness; thoroughness; co-operativeness, including respect for authority; general intelligence; language facility; judgment regarding human relations in industry; mechanical comprehension; job knowledge and skills; self-improvement on own initiative; emotional maturity and control.

These appear to be desirable qualities which the author has selected by (1) combining several lists of "qualities whose possession or lack of possession has proved significant in predicting whether a person without supervisory experience will succeed if appointed to the position of supervisor" and, (2) choosing each quality on the basis that it was included in a majority of the lists consulted and also that it

can be measured with reasonable accuracy either by well standardized tests, by observation of behavior in nonsupervisory positions, or by special interview techniques. In this connection it is interesting to note that Halsey, in describing the General Electric Company's program of selecting supervisors, makes the statement that "Psychological tests are used as a help in further evaluating in several G. E. plants; but test results are never used as a substitute for other means of evaluation—they merely add to whatever information has been gained from other sources." One understands by this statement, not that psychological tests are not useful in this program, but that they are aids to a comprehensive program.

The chapter on "Methods of Selecting Supervisors" is probably the most valuable in the book. In it the author clearly develops, step by step, the selection process. In addition he describes the selection program of several companies.

In the section on developing first-line supervisors, Halsey describes the best practices used by a variety of organizations to induct new supervisors. Training in human relations is properly emphasized in the book. In this respect reference may be made to a statement to the effect that recent research, especially that conducted by the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan, shows the soundness, from even a sheer production-getting viewpoint, of a strong emphasis on the human relations aspect of a supervisor's work. Time after time it was found that the departments showing the highest production records are those in which the supervisor was "employee-centered" rather than "production-centered."

The author does not neglect the value of training in economics, accident prevention, labor legislation and the union contract, public speaking, and community relations in developing a sound program of supervisory training.

In recommending an appraisal of job performance of supervisors, the point is made that both the interests of the organization and of the person whose job performance is being appraised are served better if the whole program is built around the principal purpose of encouraging and helping the individual in his efforts toward self-improvement.

Finally, a set of criteria for evaluating the entire program is suggested which includes such factors as change in individual production, spoilage of work, labor turnover, absenteeism, safety record, suggestions by employees, grievances, analysis of exit interviews, and attitude surveys.

All in all, this is an extremely valuable sum-

mary of ideas, techniques, and programs which have been found useful in the selection and development of first-line supervisors.—JOSEPH RECHETNICK, *Director, Personnel Department, New York City Housing Authority.*

The Dynamics of Bureaucracy. Peter M. Blau. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago 37, Cambridge University Press, London N.W. 1, England. The University of Toronto Press, Toronto 5, Canada. 269 pp. \$5.00.

This is a new book on a very interesting subject, but in a field with perhaps limited reader interest. The book concerns itself principally with a study of interpersonal relations in a state employment agency compared with the same in a federal agency for law enforcement. To obtain first-hand information, the author spent the last six months of the year 1948 in the federal agency and the first six months of the year 1949 in the state agency.

In his Preface the author informs us of the task he is undertaking in writing this book in the following words:

Bureaucracies are complex systems of human activity. The understanding of the social structures requires a knowledge of the patterns of social interaction within them. The goal of this study is to contribute to this knowledge on the basis of an intensive investigation of small groups of officials in two government agencies. The inquiry focuses upon the interpersonal relations that developed in these two formal organizations and upon the ways in which these relations influenced operations. This examination of the processes of social interaction reveals the dynamic character of bureaucratic structure—its mutability.

Many types of staff interpersonal relations, interactions, social cohesions and patterns of conduct are discussed.

The book is divided into three parts.

The first part deals with a department of a public employment agency in an eastern state. It was known as Department X. It had a staff of 24 divided into 1 department head, 3 section supervisors, 15 interviewers and 5 clerks. The interviewers were divided into: Section A (7); Section B (5); and Section C (3) (handicapped cases). The major responsibility was to serve workers seeking employment and employers seeking workers. Into the Department was introduced the statistical method of evaluating performance. The author examines the effect of this on the three Sections in Department X.

In Section A, competitive behaviour interfered with operating efficiency to the extent that both productivity and quality was lowered. In an effort to increase their productivity many

interviewers hoarded job orders and also sent marginally qualified clients to fill jobs. These practices made it possible for the most competitive interviewers to make more placements, but Section A's total placements were less than those of Section B whose interviewers worked more cooperatively.

In Section B co-operation that had been developed among interviewers effectively curbed competitive practices, social cohesions were strengthened and productivity raised. As a matter of fact, when a Section B interviewer manifested competitive tendencies he was penalized by being excluded from the network of reciprocal information and thereby his chances for increasing his production were really reduced.

In Section C results were similar to those in Section B, except that the work of this Section did not lend itself to the raising of productivity.

The author next deals with some favourable developments following the introduction of statistical records of performance: (1) Since this constrained officials to exert efforts in specified directions it changed the patterns of activities and interactions in the Department in the following ways: (a) productivity increased; (b) clients were treated more impartially and more equitably; (c) better relationships were established between interviewers and their supervisors; and (d) co-operation enhanced productivity.

However, it also caused the following unfavourable developments: (1) It encouraged competitive interaction between officials which both interfered with service to handicapped clients and efficient placement service in general. (2) Concern with production records created strained relations with some clients. It caused interviewers to discourage refusal of jobs by the use of sanctions since such refusal of jobs lowered placement figures.

So much for the state agency.

Part II deals with a department in a federal agency. The District Commissioner, in this agency, was responsible for enforcement of practices designed to bring about uniform application of the provisions of two federal laws in two Eastern states. This required inspection of business establishments to institute faithful adherence to these relatively new laws. Department Y, the unit that was under study, had 18 members. The Department Supervisor was in charge of 16 agents and 1 clerk.

First of all, the author sets up the condition under which this Department functioned. Some of these were as follows: (1) Effective operations were greatly contributed to by frequent consultation among agents although at some social cost. (2) These consultations, however,

were officially prohibited, but the prohibition was overlooked by those in authority. At the same time consultation of agents with their supervisor were not only allowed but encouraged. (3) Such occurring problems as "decision making" were crucial for operations. Their solving necessitated changes in the patterns of interaction among officials as well as in their operating practices. (4) The pattern of inter-consultation between agents generated cohesive bonds among peers and differentiation of status between them. Consequently an agent's standing in the group depended upon his competence. This forced some agents to socially acknowledge their incompetency.

The author then discusses some effects obtained from operations within these conditions. The social cohesion in Department Y contributed to effective law enforcement. By reducing anxiety it improved quality of decisions made. By relieving emotional tensions, generated in strenuous negotiations with clients, it facilitated a polite and detached approach toward them.

The author then draws a conclusion from the findings in both agencies which he says support the conclusion of many other students of formal organizations that congenial informal relations between co-workers, and not completely detached ones, are a prerequisite for efficient bureaucratic operations.

The author finally emphasizes at the end of Part II that from all this the group structure emerged and underwent change in the finding of collective solutions to operating problems. He says that "the bureaucratic organization made the spontaneous development of new practices, when the need for them arose, a typical occurrence and this made it a most effective instrument of law enforcement."

In Part III the author shows that bureaucratic conditions generated favourable possible attitudes toward change in several ways: (1) Existence of irritating difficulties created positive attitudes towards innovations that removed irritants. (2) Interest of Civil Servants identified them with new policies that required expansion of the organization. (3) With achievement of original objectives, interest of Agency's members strengthened their beliefs in extending organization objectives. (4) New problems, produced by changes in operations were welcomed by officials, who had fully mastered their tasks, because their work would be made more interesting, but were not welcomed by less competent officials.

In the last chapter the author presents his final conclusions. The implications the investigation has for the administrator, on the one

hand, and for the prospective trends in bureaucratic development, on the other, is pointed out. The author states:

1. A fundamental revision of the conception of rationality in administration may be expected.

2. Advancement of employees, on the basis of abilities with protection against arbitrary dismissal, to enable individual development of a strong interest in the performance of occupational responsibilities and to maintain a professional outlook unperturbed by economic anxieties.

3. The employer's concern with reducing costs and the employee's concern with making more money must be prevented from interfering with professional devotion to duties. This conflict will be acknowledged in the future so that it can then be dealt with rationally by making administrative management and personnel management two independent agencies.

4. Outdated philosophies of human behaviour will be abandoned if rationality is the goal of bureaucratic development as it appears to be.

5. The belief that most employees are incapable of anything beyond sheeplike adherence to detailed rules will be replaced by a better understanding of the ways in which the challenge of responsibility promotes completed performance of duties.

6. The myth of the magical power of fear will be repudiated.

7. The notion that anxieties about losing one's job furnish the best incentives for performing it will be superseded by the recognition of economic security as a prerequisite of intelligent and interested execution of professional tasks.

8. The seeds of these transformations are contained in the two bureaucratic organizations studied.

The author also has something to say about the administrator of the future. About him he says:—

1. By reason of having met the prerequisites for spontaneous adjustive development in the organization, and relieved of the duty to institute most needed improvements himself, he will have more time for intermittent thorough studies to appraise the effects of existing conditions on operations.

2. The administrator will have more time to refine the incentive system in order to transform all organizational needs into disturbances for operating officials as a further inducement for the emergence of required innovations.

3. Some of his actions may create anxieties or increase status differences and thus undermine the conditions necessary for adjustive development.

4. This is the main challenge of his job. The administrator must recurrently strengthen these conditions, which are in constant danger of being impaired by bureaucratic processes, but without which efficient operations would suffer.

What I like about this book is the style in which the material is presented. The author is continually bringing in statements from the

staff members engaged in operations, sometimes expressed in ungrammatical language, but which, nevertheless, help to prove the points made. At the end of each chapter the author sums up what has gone before in that chapter and presents definite conclusions on the subject matter discussed.

The book is well worth reading for all those engaged in this particular field of work.—RALPH P. HARTLEY, *Immediate Past President, International Association of Personnel in Employment Security.*

The States and Their Older Citizens: A Summary of the Problem and a Program of Action. Frank Smothers, Editor. The Council of State Governments, 1313 E. 60th, Chicago, Ill., 1955. Pp. 176. \$3.00.

The percentage increase in population in 1950 over 1900 was 297 percent for persons 65 and over. This compares with a percentage increase of 98 percent for the total population. . . . From 13.5 million persons 45 years or older in 1900, there has been an increase to 42.5 million in 1950 with 64 million predicted for 1975.¹ . . . There has been a decrease in the proportion of men over 65 in the labor force of about 27 percent—dropping from 68 to 41 percent over the last 60 years.²

More and more facts similar to the ones presented here are being accumulated and published in recognition of a comparatively new but growing problem; that of our aging population. *The States and Their Older Citizens* is one of the most recent reports of a growing and imposing array of literature concerning itself with this topic.

Research in this field is being conducted by many state organizations. At the present time, according to the report, twenty-four states have committees studying this problem. A large majority of these groups have been authorized by legislative act or resolution with the balance being created by some type of executive order. Reports have been published by some states describing the research and work carried on and developing aims and goals for future temporary or permanent organizations.³

The Governor's Conference at its Forty-sixth Annual Meeting on July 14, 1954, stated:

Our older citizens are entitled, in their advancing years, both to healthful living and to opportunities for useful and satisfying activities. In order

that government at all levels may do its best to cooperate in dealing constructively with the problem of the chronically ill, aged and infirm, it is essential that studies of the problem should reflect not only the existing situation but should provide a basis for intelligent planning of adequate care, treatment and rehabilitation facilities to cope with the needs of the foreseeable future.

As a result, the conference passed a formal resolution requesting the Council of State Governments to make the study now being reviewed. The study has attempted to present the origins, magnitude, and nature of the problem of the aging, action taken by the states, and to present some thinking on recommended paths of action to be followed to alleviate and reduce the hardships associated with the process of aging.

In a sense, this book performs a definite service. It introduces to the uninitiated the problems, concerning the aging, of employment, maintenance of income, housing, prevention of deterioration, rehabilitation, medical home care, construction of medically supervised nursing homes, establishment of community centers, training of professional personnel, education, and research. It does more than merely introduce these areas. It presents the problems, describes typical actions being carried on in various states, and proposes programs for action.

Let us take the problem of maintaining an adequate income as an example. The report presents the interesting facts that in 1952, 36 percent of persons sampled in a nation-wide study had incomes less than the amount required to meet a minimum emergency budget and 53 percent received an income less than required for the maintenance of a self-respecting standard of living. Only 21 percent of male and 12 percent of female old-age beneficiaries had incomes from employer and union pensions. In 1952, persons 65 and over were the age group with the lowest incomes in the nation. The median annual income for men was approximately \$1,247; for women, \$654. The nation now spends \$1.5 billion a year for Old-Age Assistance. These are certainly interesting figures and clearly point out some of the ramifications in terms of the individual and the country as a whole. To some degree, implications are present relating directly to the public personnel administrator. Recognition should surely be given by him to the problems of retired employees. Pensions undoubtedly should be adequate to maintain minimum needs in a respectful manner. Basically, however, the topic being discussed in the report is much bigger than can be coped with by public per-

¹ U. S. Department of Labor, *Facts About Older Workers*, 1955, p. 1.

² Federal Security Agency, *Fact Book on Aging*, 1952, p. 2.

³ See reports published by New York, New Jersey, and California.

sonnel agencies. The problem is national, demanding national attention with ultimate solutions for most of the population lying in the expansion of Old-Age Assistance.

The major value of the report to the public personnel administrator lies in its use as a vehicle for creating an awareness of the problems of the aging as an area assuming major importance—and perhaps revealing his relation to the problem.

In attempting to compress the aging problem, with its many ramifications, into a report of this size, the authors have barely been able to touch each specific area. The report can be questioned as of little use to the public personnel administrator aside from a purely introductory mechanism. Its coverage of the area relating to problems of employment is indeed sketchy.

The problem of employment of older persons is introduced with a few factual statements based on the findings of limited research. For example, the report shows that most older persons want to continue working as long as they are physically fit. It further finds that less than one out of twenty-five workers retire to enjoy leisure, the remainder are *compelled* to retire.

The report then proceeds to present an adequate summary of the problems associated with compulsory retirement. With a few strong statements it attempts to break through prevailing myths. The greatest obstacle to the introduction of a program of flexible retirement ages which it emphatically endorses is the absence of objective criteria of aging for use in a program. To be usable, the study states:

The criteria must be easy to administer and acceptable to the employees. It should measure both the performance on the job and the physical fitness, psychomotor capacity, mental ability, and personal qualities required of the given occupation.

The report barely mentions training and placement programs. It appears to be inadequate for stimulating the interest of public personnel administrators in this area. Because of its limited scope, it is not in a position to directly relate the field to the everyday problems confronting such persons. For example, the whole problem of minimum and maximum age limits for entrance to examinations is necessarily omitted. And yet the problem of age restrictions for admittance to civil service examinations is one which many administrators may have to face in the near future.

In November, 1954, 30 percent of the unemployed registered with public employment offices were over 46, but only 18 percent of job placements by these offices were among that age

group.⁴ Also in November, 1954, 43 percent of the placements in the age group between 46 and 64 were in service-type jobs, such as elevator operators, janitors, etc. This contrasts with 33 percent for the 36-45 age group, 26 percent for the 21-35 age group, and 23 percent for the under 21 age group. The same pattern in reverse held for clerical and sales jobs with the smallest percent of placements among the 46-64 age group.⁵

It becomes apparent from these United States Employment Service figures that a large percentage of placements for older applicants is in service occupations. The possibility should certainly be considered of raising entrance age requirements for these occupations. In fact, the material being reviewed makes a strong point in discussing retirement that can be applied here. It is that each employee or potential employee should be judged not by his chronological age, but by his ability and fitness for his present or proposed work. The public personnel administrator who, for convenience and ease of administration, has established an arbitrary maximum entrance age must certainly reevaluate his procedures or face the possibility of finding himself out of step with current practices in the field.

The problem of age restrictions for participation in civil service examinations bares itself even earlier than may generally be thought. The need for retraining caused by occupational obsolescence in an age of increasing automation will have to be faced. Historically, one of the functions of age restrictions, I believe, was to create a comparability of work force. That is, in beginning professional training programs severe age restrictions were generally imposed to guarantee applicants with recent educational attainments. In the area of the skilled trades, also, the desire seemed to be to obtain newly trained and comparatively inexperienced workers upon which a career service could be built. Here too, we may have to reexamine our methods and aims. Perhaps in the place of chronological age, a given number of years following completion of training should be substituted. It may be possible that in the case of the aging worker still in his 30's, or even in his 40's, 50's or 60's, retraining for a new occupation may satisfy the desire or need for homogeneous groups of newly trained and comparatively inexperienced workers.

Retraining in itself may become a major problem. Changing concepts and attitudes toward the aging would require expanded pro-

⁴ U. S. Department of Labor, *Older Applicants at Public Employment Offices*, November, 1954, Special Survey, 1955, p. 6.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

grams of training with the objective of continuing older workers in employment rather than dismissing or retiring those who are no longer able to cope with their current assignments. Most certainly, comprehensive transfer and counseling activities would be necessary to make the maximum use of retraining methods.

Tests of mental aptitude and ability are not directly mentioned in relation to job seekers. Yet, for the civil service administrator, this subject may have a strong impact since so many tests are standardized on youthful groups. E. F. Wonderlic has discovered that to interpret intelligence accurately from scores on his test, one point should be added for persons between 30 and 34, four points for persons between 40 and 44, six points for persons between 50 and 54, and eight points for persons 55 and over.⁶ It is likely that most civil service agencies have been aware of this type of bias in many of their tests and have preferred to utilize it as an added technique in discriminating against older applicants. I am suggesting that public personnel administrators take a new look at this problem, with the possibility of developing new norms for some of their tests based on older age groups.

There are many additional problems affecting the public personnel administrator. The use of a set physical standard for all jobs regardless of individual requirements is one. And the demand for educational attainments not related to actual needs is another, since older persons in general have attended school for shorter periods of time.

⁶ E. F. Wonderlic, *The Effect of Age, Education, and Sex on the Personnel Test Scores*, n.d., p. 8.

Typical recommendations listed in the book as having been made to legislative study groups in various states include: ending age barriers to state and local employment, legislating to protect older workers against unfair discrimination in employment, encouraging employers to establish selection and placement techniques relating the applicants' capability to the job regardless of age, setting up state-wide coordinated programs to improve employment opportunities for older workers, and including in the state employment services special programs of counseling, placement and retraining of older workers. Public personnel administrators cannot remain oblivious to the trends and currents existing in the community. They must recognize them and prepare themselves to make the necessary adjustments in their own programs.

A major portion of the material presents a statistical compilation of facts relating to all phases of the aging problem. In the area of employment alone, ten separate tables are presented on such topics as retirement age for public employees in state retirement systems and distribution of labor force by age and sex.

An adequate bibliography is also included. It is divided into the categories dealt with in the report.

To sum up, this report has little direct bearing for the personnel administrator. It does serve the useful function, however, of introducing the broad subject of the aging to persons in related fields bound to be affected by this emerging problem.—NORMAN BERKOWITZ, Chief, Recruitment and Placement, Michigan Civil Service Commission.

personnel literature

abstracts of current articles

1955 CSA Abstracters

The following members of the Civil Service Assembly have accepted the editor's invitation to serve as abstracters of articles for the "Personnel Literature" section of *Public Personnel Review* during 1955.

Mrs. Erna W. Adler, Formerly, Personnel Technician, Municipal Civil Service Commission, New Rochelle, New York

Fred R. Alleman, New Jersey State Department of Civil Service, Trenton, New Jersey

Charles A. Brown, Personnel Technician, Contra Costa County Civil Service Commission, Martinez, California

Richard Byler, Administrative Assistant and Planning Analyst, Planning Commission, County of Montgomery, Pennsylvania

Robert B. Code, Chief of Personnel, Department of Mines and Technical Surveys, Canada

Carl Gardecki, Personnel Technician, Wayne County Civil Service Commission, Detroit, Michigan

Jesse R. Graham, Jr., Civil Service Commission and Department of Personnel, City of Cincinnati, Ohio

W. Brooke Graves, Legislative Reference Service, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.

David D. Greenhalgh, Personnel Technician, Civil Service Commission, Los Angeles, California

Miss Virginia Hagney, Chief Examiner, Civil Service Commission, City of Rockford, Illinois

William Krieg, Personnel Examiner, Municipal Civil Service Board, Portland, Oregon

Charles T. Martin, Chief, Classification Division, Fifth Regional Office, U.S. Civil Service Commission, Atlanta, Georgia

R. L. W. Ritchie, Chief Personnel Officer, British Columbia Civil Service Commission, Victoria, B. C., Canada

Lawrence E. Rogers, Personnel Technician, Department of Personnel, St. Louis, Missouri

Henry Spiegelblatt, Assistant to the President, Board of Health, City of Chicago, Illinois

Tom Womble, Assistant Personnel Director, Miami Beach, Florida

Administration

Ohmann, O. A., "Skyhooks"—With Special Implications from Monday Through Friday," *Harvard Business Review*, May-June, 1955.—Although our economy has been abundantly productive, our standard of living reaching an all-time high, our people are tense, frustrated, and insecure. No people ever had so much, and enjoyed so little real satisfaction. It is suggested that the main problem is not the division of the spoils, but the development of new attitudes, the finding of a new religion for industry—or at least a better one than it has had. Man is, in fact, looking for new "skyhooks"—for an abiding faith around which life's experiences can be integrated and given meaning. This grows out of a number of factors such as abundance without satisfaction, disillusion with science, and the trend toward bigness with its resulting loss of individuality. The individual's needs for some spiritual moorings are a matter of primary concern to the business administrator because: (1) the values of the job must be in harmony with the rest of life; (2) the values in an industrial society tend to become those of the entire culture; (3) the public tends to hold business leaders responsible for the general social welfare; (4) intangibles are the real secrets of motivation in an organization; and (5) the industrial leader himself needs a better set of "skyhooks" if he is going successfully to defend the private enterprise system. There are, to be sure, worse motives than making a profit in a free and competitive market, but it is also true that these concepts of the classical economists just do not challenge the best in people, do not appeal to the true nobility of spirit of which people are capable. What is wrong is not so

much the capitalistic system itself as it is the goals and purposes professed by those who believe in and defend it. Faster and more efficient production in order to shorten the period of drudgery and have time to cultivate one's soul is not the answer because the thing that happens to people in the course of production may be far more important than the end product. The real difference between our system and that of the Russians (both worship production) is the difference in the philosophy about people, and about the rights of individuals. The general cultural heritage is passed on to the people in many ways. The article concludes with one among many possible different "right answers," given by a responsible business executive who has succeeded in developing "a sense of special significance about his operation which is shared by his associates."—*W. Brooke Graves.*

Dotson, Arch, "The Emerging Doctrine of Privilege in Public Employment." *Public Administration Review*, Spring, 1955.—The concept has emerged gradually that public employment is merely a privilege, not a right; that public employers can impose any terms that they desire; and that a public job is a grant which has no independent rights. Its main elements stem from five sources: (1) The law of office that public office is a function only of public law eliminated contract law and constitutional guarantees based upon property rights. (2) The rule of tenure and the spoils system that in the absence of a constitutional or statutory limit, removal from office is at the pleasure of the appointing authority. (3) The rule of political neutrality (Hatch Acts) that the political rights guaranteed citizens may be limited in the case of public employees to preserve integrity and discipline of the service. (4) The rule of association and collective bargaining that prohibits strikes and controls union memberships, since the state has the right to fix the qualifications of its employees. (5) The rule of loyalty that has increased the restriction on government employees, but has denied due process protections. Thus, since he has neither public nor private rights in his employment, the public employee has no rights except those which the public employer may choose to grant voluntarily—subject to withdrawal without redress to the employee. The citizen-state relationship has become confused with the employer-employee relationship to the disadvantage of the public employee. Undesirable public policy effects include low morale, high turnover, lack of effective employee organization, partial silencing of many most informed on public

policy issues, suspicion and intimidation within the service, and lack of official candor on controversial issues. The entire dogma needs reviewing. Even if there is no right to public employment, it does not necessarily follow that there are no rights in public employment.—*Richard Byler.*

Conferences

"How To Handle A Group Think." *Management Methods*, May, 1955.—The best way to set work goals is to create a human climate that is favorable for sharing goals with the group. The most favorable climate can be described as democratic, permissive, group centered, and equalitarian. One way to help achieve this climate is to encourage project sessions in which followers and leaders participate in a "group think" to solve some common problems. Simple initial projects, immediate and specific, not long-range management problems are preferable. Good leadership will seek to draw all of the group into active discussion, will carefully seek to avoid discord, and will keep the tone of the group good natured and friendly. In a sincere atmosphere, people "swap ideas and share some secrets." To achieve progress, discussions must stay on the beam. Studies reveal that when the group is interested, participants will talk more freely about themselves, will talk at greater length with few embarrassing pauses. The alert leader will encourage group members to talk, will see to it that minorities have their say. Sometimes the bashful, self-effacing man has sound views, but needs to be encouraged to state his views. Studies seem to indicate that it is good policy to "sell by agreeing," and that the adoption of ideas comes more readily by trying to agree rather than by trying to convince, that larger groups produce more and better ideas, and that a 100-minute session is more fruitful than a 50-minute one. Other guides to a successful "group-think" rest on the policy to "present both sides," to "summarize the conclusions," and to "watch your language" for verbal intelligence is important.—*Fred R. Alleman.*

Public Relations

Yutzy, Thomas D. and Williams, Simon, "New Perspective on Public Relations." *Harvard Business Review*, May-June, 1955.—More money is being spent on public relations, especially as an adjunct to sales promotion. This indicates the confusion about its practice. In actuality, the practitioner performs a clearly definable task. He exists because of his unique

contribution to a variety of other service functions. What the practitioner does and why he does it can be understood by management. Public relations advice should be sought and based on specific characteristics in terms of its potential contribution. Two characteristics of public relations programs are (a) the use of a wide variety of methods and (b) emphasis on servicing communication media. Newspaper publicity in the minds of too many executives is public relations; whereas the use of one story properly placed could reach a specific goal. A most important function for the practitioner is to guide clients to good public relations practices. Top management should know which problems require operating executives and which require the services of specialists and if specialists are to be called in—which ones. Public relations is concerned with differences in beliefs, opinions, attitudes, and actions among people which interfere with the harmonious operation of an organization. Public relations problems are frequently serious and demand the attention of specialists when differences exist in a small group. Public relations can function only in the realm of free choice. A problem exists for public relations if the people involved must be persuaded by means which they will voluntarily accept as in their best interest. A problem for public relations exists when it embraces deeply held opinions which block acceptance of a direct message. Beliefs are among the toughest of human fabrications, yet changes do occur. Elements of controversy and deep-seated habits of mind exist. Not to consider a public relations program because of these habits defeats the main purpose of public relations advice. Public relations jobs fall into a limited number of categories. Defining the problem and choosing the method of attack are procedures that management should understand. Public relations practice has evolved into a professional operation. It is a useful and important tool for management.—*Carl Gardecki.*

Recruitment

Jensen, John J., and Crissy, William J. E., "How Effective Are Recruitment Brochures?" *Personnel*, May, 1955.—During the past decade competition has been keen among companies recruiting men and women for entry positions leading to professional and executive careers, particularly in the fields of science and engineering. Many companies produce costly brochures to merchandise their opportunities to college graduates. The authors studied recruitment brochures in the light of topics to be covered, extent of coverage, brochure evaluation,

and general improvement suggestions. The study involved developing a list of topics appropriate for coverage in such booklets, obtaining judgments of college placement officers as to relative importance of each topic, obtaining samples of existing brochures, and deriving a scoring scheme for evaluating them. The content of a specific list of employee handbooks was studied, modified by a preliminary content analysis of several recruiting brochures, with a resulting list of 23 topics to be submitted for rating by 48 college placement officers. It was felt that college placement officers could better relate the needs of graduates to industry's personnel requirements. An approximate 10 percent national sample of coeducational and men's colleges' placement officers was obtained from a listing in the "Journal of College Placement." The usable returns from the officers were rated, with the average rating for each topic accepted as the point value for that topic. The 58 recruitment brochures utilized represented a wide cross-section of the economy as a whole. Each brochure used in the final sample was scored by substituting the point value for each topic judged to have been covered. Table 1 shows topics suggested for inclusion and their relative importance in the judgment of the placement officers. Topics receiving ratings higher than the mean reveal common elements indicating that the college graduate looking for a position is mainly concerned about how the job can best satisfy his personal needs, wants, and hopes. Table 2 shows coverage of topics in the brochures studied which indicates that many fail to discuss a number of subjects rated as important. Table 3 shows the condensed norms based on the scores given to the brochures, clearly indicating a wide disparity between the information a brochure should cover and what it actually does. Apart from actual content, layout, writing style, illustrations, and general make-up are important in a brochure. The authors suggest some improvements, including the coverage of topics important to the job-seeking graduate, avoidance of platitudes, space allocation in accordance with topical importance, and the inclusion of specific information—particularly about wages and salary.—*Erna W. Adler.*

Fleming, Arthur S., "Government Builds Brain Reserves." *Nation's Business*, May, 1955.—In periods of all-out mobilization our government has not had an orderly plan for meeting its personnel needs. Looking toward possible emergencies in the future, the Office of Defense Mobilization now has a plan for establishing a nucleus of executive personnel which

will be, in a sense, similar to the military reserve, organized and available for call on short notice. Initially, the Office of Defense Mobilization will recruit about fifty people from outside the government. ODM will have these people visit the office at convenient times to learn of progress of plans in their areas of interest. Information will also be supplied these recruits by bulletins, correspondence, and telephone calls. In addition, the executive reservists will participate in war game exercises to uncover weaknesses and to learn to face typical problems. These people will be recruited from industrial and business organizations, colleges, trade associations, farm organizations, labor unions, and other employers of executive personnel. They will work in all of the areas of the Office of Defense Mobilization. At present these areas include Production, Stabilization, Materials, Tele-communications, Manpower, and Plans and Readiness. This is the first attempt to organize an executive reserve in peacetime, although there have been plans for rosters. It is hoped by the end of the year that attention can be given to extending this program to other agencies. To be successful, the executive reserve should not be organized agency by agency on a piecemeal basis. An official executive reserve should be established by statute followed by an executive order in which the coordinating agency is designated. The pilot operation has been specifically prepared for the Office of Defense Mobilization.—*Lawrence E. Rogers.*

Separation

Melcher, Robert D., "Getting the Facts on Employee Resignations," *Personnel*, May, 1955.—Do we really know why people resign? Do turnover statistics, "official" reasons for leaving, personal contact, and hearsay provide enough information to devise intelligent corrective policies? The purpose of this study was to find out whether the exit interview can be used to uncover some of the true reasons why employees resign. An analysis of the turnover in a particular laboratory showed that a peak of separation for all classifications came at about the third year of employment, although they varied between class groups. The personnel division initiated an exit interview program using various forms and techniques to ascertain the feelings of terminating employees. The interview was divided into four phases: (1) structuring, consisting of an informal discussion giving the reasons for the interview, etc.; (2) nondirective discussions, in which the employee was urged to talk; (3) a written question-

naire in which the employee was asked for comments; and (4) a directed discussion based upon the questionnaire. The "official" reasons for leaving given by professional employees differed markedly from those given by the nonprofessionals and were generally subjective while objective reasons were generally obtained from the nonprofessionals. Questions to determine work satisfaction showed professional employees either significantly more disturbed about their work or more critical. To questions on working conditions the professionals and nonprofessionals who were dissatisfied differed considerably in their emphasis. Both groups were dissatisfied but the nonprofessionals showed more concern. Ratings on supervision showed dissatisfaction from both groups and twice as great by the professionals. Professionals indicated generally that supervision was the main cause, and they would not return to the same unit. The nonprofessionals registered fewer complaints regarding supervision and nearly all said they would return to the same unit again, indicating that the group had, on the whole, been satisfied with their employment. From this program, the exit interview may serve as a useful measure of employee morale. However, the report must be balanced by a supervisor's report. There will always be dissatisfied employees for reasons beyond control. Where factors can be uncovered through the exit interview that can be eliminated, the interview can be put to good use. (Article contains charts showing analysis of turnover, the exit interview form used, and reasons for resigning and dissatisfaction.)—*Charles A. Brown.*

Supervision

Davis, Keith, "Dilemma of Stenographic Pool." *Office Executive*, May, 1955.—In evaluating the advisability of stenographic pools, it must be kept in mind that functionalization of services may disintegrate human relations so that the whole is achieved with greater effort. The merits of a stenographic pool are in specialization of skills, better working conditions, more effective utilization of time and training, better and more uniform control and discipline. They also create problems. Members of top management, in approving the plan, may exempt themselves and other "status" officials, which is apt to create friction. Participation in planning by the girls themselves and the managers affected is suggested, since the problems concern feelings and viewpoints rather than technicalities. The greatest of these problems results from the devalued status of both stenographers and their former bosses. As the per-

sonal relationship with her boss disappears, so does the variety and skill of her job. Managers also feel degraded; some higher executives still have personal stenographers. They think it is more difficult to schedule work and are put in the position of asking the stenographic supervisor to approve priority decisions. Long-run costs may be increased because high-priced talent (the manager's) may be performing routine work formerly done by a stenographer. The personal adjustment and understanding between stenographer and manager is hardly possible; the situation is ripe for frustration and job dissatisfactions. Although centralization is supposed to reduce the number of stenographers required, often there is no reduction and more clerks and messengers have to be hired. It is usually necessary that secondary or staff functions operate with something less than maximum economy in order that the primary line functions which they serve may operate with maximum economy and effectiveness; stenography is a simple illustration of this principle. The basic technical objective in centralizing stenography is the benefit of specialization; however, the pool stenographer is a generalist in communication and interpersonal relationship with many managers; the personal stenographer is a specialist in this respect. These observations warn us that centralization should be approached with full knowledge of its problems and implications. A compromise arrangement may be best in some situations.—*R. L. W. Ritchie.*

Wilson, Robert C., High, Wallace S., and Comrey, Andrew L., "An Iterative Analysis of Supervisory and Group Dimensions." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, April, 1955.—A questionnaire was administered at the Long Beach Naval Shipyard to 100 civilian journeymen and skilled tradesmen who work on all phases of ship overhaul, repair, and construction for the U.S. Navy. The questionnaire contained 13 dimensions or homogeneous groups of multiple-choice items designed to measure perceived characteristics of the relationship between the respondents and their supervisors. Factor analysis of the subdimensions, using Thurstone's complete centroid method, yielded seven identifiable factors. These were named supervisor-subordinate rapport, congenial work group, informal control, group unity, attitude toward safety enforcement, social nearness, and pride in work group. Using the data thus far obtained and applying a modification of the Wherry-Gaylord iterative analysis procedure, eight relatively independent and homogeneous groups of items pertaining to supervisory practices and

group interactions were developed. The supervisory dimensions obtained are lack of arbitrariness, communication, safety enforcement, and social nearness. The group dimensions are congenial work group, informal control, group unity, and pride in work group. These dimensions will be useful in validation studies and morale surveys where independent and homogeneous item groups with known reliabilities and intercorrelations are needed. (Article contains table listing the items used and showing biserial correlation coefficients for each item with each of the eight item pools.)—*Tom D. Womble.*

Bentley, Barnabas, "The Double Standard Paradox." *Office Executive*, May, 1955.—Today we tend to have different standards for men and women in business and industry. To the student of differential psychology this tendency is quite logical and necessary because there are some real differences between the two sexes which must be taken into account. The trouble is, however, that all too often we have a double standard where there should be a single standard, and a single standard where sex differences really do exist. As a general rule, standards of compensation and ceiling of opportunity favor men around an office or business establishment, and while there are individual cases that disprove this rule, the usual situation is this—in standards of work burden, amount of responsibility demanded and general treatment from the psychological point of view, in all of these areas we tend to expect less of women. When we talk about double standards and group differences in the total mass of men and women, we are dealing in the most tricky statistical device there is—averages. The truth is that the only considerations which are useful to us in business in evaluating people are individual differences regardless of whether these differences are in men or women. The only standard is a single one, and it is the standard dictated by the job itself. Therefore, if you have a double standard working in your office, forget it! Do not replace it with a single which forces both men and women into the same narrow limits of judgment. Replace it with the standard that judges each person on the basis of his or her differences in relationship to the job description. There is no standard acceptable except the standard that treats each human being as an individual, that takes into account more and more of the individual differences, paying less and less attention to stereotypes, mass groupings, and broad generalizations. In general, match the person to the job. Don't try, without a lot of careful thought, to

match the job to the person. Don't give yourself ulcers trying to make over an applicant whose basic aptitudes, interests, and personality don't fit.—*William E. Krieg.*

Training

Pamp, Frederick E. Jr., "Liberal Arts as Training for Business." *Harvard Business Review*, May-June, 1955.—The practice of management will be profoundly affected by the rapidly approaching forces of automation and statistical decision making. Up to now most of the increased demands on management have been quantitative to the end of better control of masses of data and information and better decision making on the basis of such material. Now we are faced by the fact that many of the quantitative aspects of the executive's job are going to recede into the innards of a computer. However, it is inevitable that new problems will crowd in to take the place of the old ones. In other than quantitative judgments, a new standard of accuracy and precision will be called for to match the level of accuracy displayed by the computer. It is time for the focus on management development to shift to the building of the kind of executive quality which will be at a premium tomorrow. There has

been a growing call for "breadth" in educational preparation for management and a surprising degree of agreement on the need for more liberal arts in colleges. The call is also for the ability to move surely and with confidence on unfamiliar ground, to perceive central elements in situations and see how their consequences fall into line in many dimensions. There has been a good deal of questioning for some time among more thoughtful management authorities whether management is, can be, or even ought to be considered a science. Science alone does not provide the executive with the ability to see situations as a whole after all the data are available, and to seize on the central elements and know where the entry of action can be made. The fullest kind of training for this ability can actually be given by the practice of reading and analyzing literature and arts. The essence of the humanities is meanings and value judgments on all levels. The humanities in the colleges are now struggling to put the pieces of the specialties back together again in order to make the integrated men that management can best use. If they get the proper support, these disciplines can prove the most valuable single resource available for the management of the future.—*David D. Greenhalgh.*

Thanks to Our Abstractors

THE EDITORS of Public Personnel Review would like to take this opportunity to thank those who have contributed to the Personnel Literature Section during our 1955 publishing year. Their contributions assist our readers in keeping abreast of the current literature in the public personnel field.

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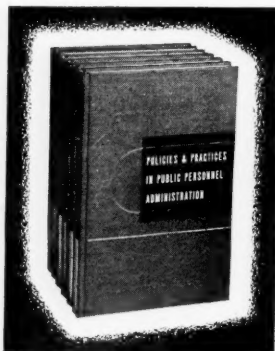
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